

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

OCTOBER, 1931

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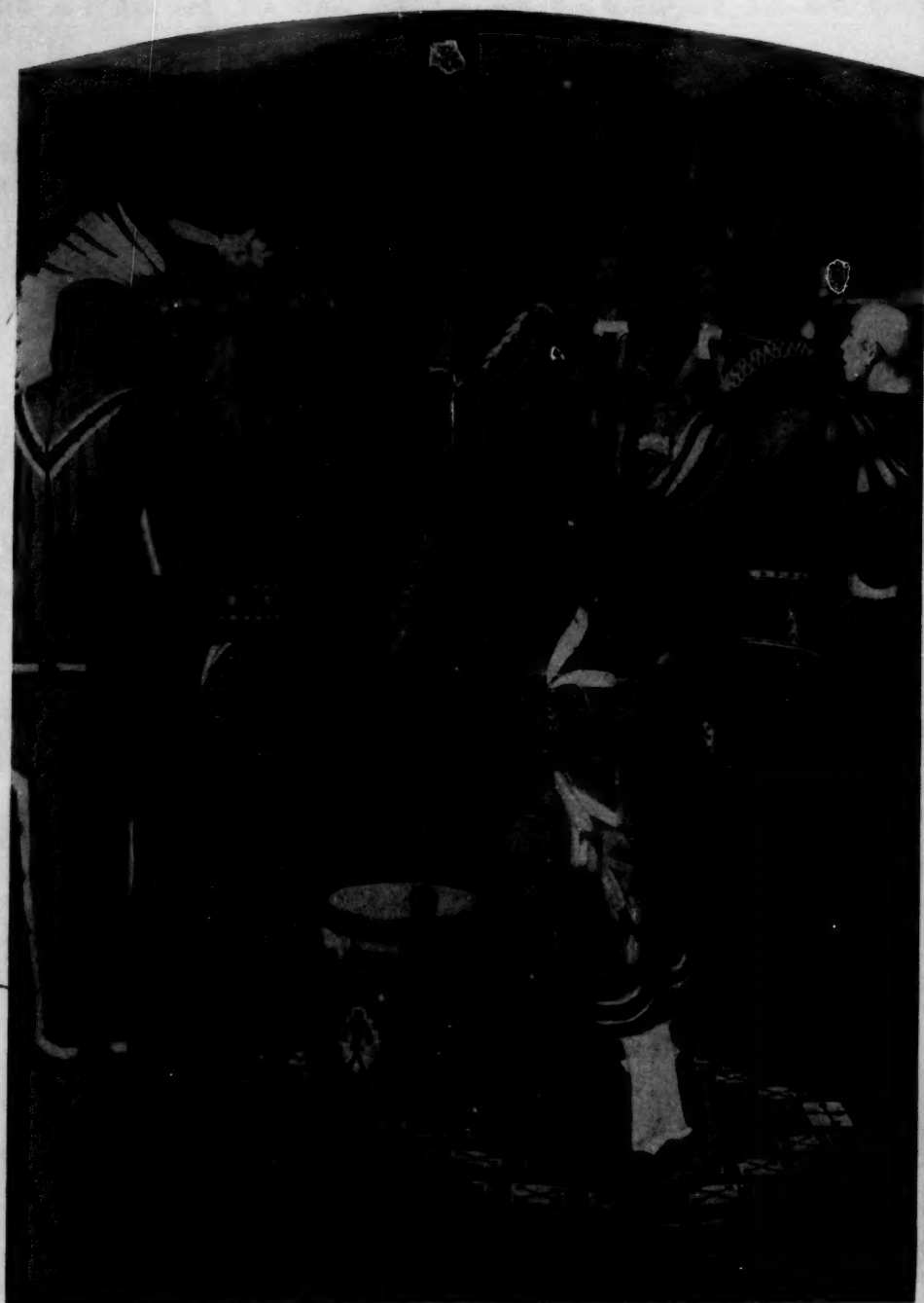
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Lacrosse, the First American Ball Game

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

For the Advancement of Nursery—Kindergarten—Primary Education

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No. 2

The Short Auditory Span Disability

MARGARET JANE SAUNDERS

Psychologist, Habit Clinics, Boston, Massachusetts

THE fact of special abilities and disabilities is doubtless established.

Such terms as linguistic ability, arithmetical ability, musical ability, mechanical ability and reading disabilities are well known and accepted. That persons show strong trends in certain things there is no doubt. However the bases for these trends are not so well known, neither is it determined as to what effect a special ability or disability may have upon the development of an individual. The acceptance of the fact of abilities and disabilities further entails analyses of wide variations and the effect they have upon the persons possessing them.

This paper will treat of the disability of a short auditory span. To point out in some detail the disadvantages which one is subjected to who is handicapped in this respect and to show the effect of this limitation upon the development of the individual intellectually, socially and emotionally will be the chief theme of the paper. For lack of space, only those facts as they apply more particularly to the young child will be considered, although brief reference will be made to the diffi-

culties which the older boy or girl encounters.

By the term "auditory span" is meant the number of presentations that can be returned after one repetition when given orally. A memory span of the more discrete, associated material is secured by repeating digits, consonants and nonsense syllables. Out of three trials usually a series that can be returned without error after one repetition given orally is accepted as the auditory span. Standardizations for the auditory span are now established and fairly well known. For instance the average three year old child has for digits an auditory span of three; the four year old child, four, and so on up to the span of the adult. Norms are also available for consonants, syllables and sentences.

Although norms have been determined for the auditory span, there is no agreement yet as to just what ability is being tested when the auditory span is measured. However, while we await definite scientific results concerning the auditory span, much can be gained by way of observation upon the individuals who are

limited in this respect. The children who do not come up to the average are of interest for various reasons. They are worthy of attention because of the similar traits and characteristics which they present. They are children who talk at a late age, although showing normal progress in other forms of development such as walking and dentition; they have speech peculiarities and defects, often language for some time being unintelligible; they are equally slow in acquiring any facility with language; they confuse directions and commissions; they learn with difficulty rote material when given orally; they are not musical; they have difficulty in learning to read; they struggle with phonics; they are poor spellers and their general progress in school is slow.

There is great similarity also in the social behavior of children with the short auditory span. Invariably they are unassertive, shy and bashful. They do not readily enter into play activities with others but prefer to play alone and to amuse themselves with little projects of their own. In some this tendency is so strong that they are looked upon as being asocial. Some develop silly mannerisms and strive to get attention by social misdemeanors. Often they become behavior problems.

Affectively these children resemble each other. They are usually immature, placing great dependence on others. If he is the first child in the family or the only child he becomes very dependent upon the mother. With others it may be an older brother or sister who assumes the lead socially. They are easily upset emotionally, this taking the form usually of much weeping.

A few cases will suffice to illustrate some of these traits that these children have and to show in detail the effect that a short auditory span has upon the development of the individual who is so handicapped. A full report of the Stanford scale will be given, as later it will be desirable to bring out certain points.

Kenneth L was the eldest child of intelligent and well-educated parents. Delayed speech at 5 years and 1 month and poor Kindergarten adjustment were the principal reasons for his parents seeking help for him. The development history showed that the child walked at eleven months and that dentition was at the average time. He did not talk, however, until he was three years old. Personally he was good-natured, but shy and ill at ease with strangers.

The first day he went to Kindergarten all went well. The second day he cried and refused to go. Subsequent days witnessed the same difficulty. This occurred without any recognized incident at the Kindergarten to cause it.

In his psychological examination, Kenneth secured on the Stanford scale a mental age of 4 years and 2 months with an Intelligence Quotient of 81. In the third year he failed (a) of item 6 repeating "Ittle dog" for "I have a little dog." (b) was scored by giving credit for a correct number of rhythmic sounds, although with poor enunciation. In the 4th year level, the counting item, the repeating of the digits and the sentences were his failures. In the 5th year, items 2, 3, and the alternative, which was substituted for the patience item, were failed. There were no successes in the 6th year. A series of non-verbal or performance tests gave him a rating quite equivalent to his chronological age. Furthermore his quick comprehension, his ability to see relationship and his criticism of his work gave evidence that the child was not as inferior mentally as his Stanford score indicated.

Fifteen months later Kenneth was given a second psychological examination. His poor auditory span again was very apparent. The second time he failed the repeating of the digits and sentences on the four year level; confused the commissions in the fifth year and failed the repeating of the sentences in the 6th year. In the 7th year he scored items 2

and 4 and the comprehension item in the 8th year. Kenneth's rating now on the Stanford gave him an Intelligence Quotient of 92. In his performance tests his rating was equivalent to that of an 8 year old child.

A comparison of the second examination with the first brings out some interesting facts. His poor auditory memory is emphasized. Repeating of digits and sentences were his repeated failures. In both examinations such items were failed on a four year level, showing an inability to succeed in such things on this level although scoring in items of comparison on the eight year. Furthermore the ability to repeat digits and sentences showed no improvement in the second examination, while development in other respect seemed to have progressed normally. The raising of the score some eleven points in the second examination showed also that the younger child with the short auditory span is at a greater disadvantage on the Stanford scale than the older.

It is quite unnecessary to say that Kenneth found it difficult to meet the requirements of the first grade. Inattention and poor reading were the chief complaints of his teacher, while coloring, drawing and writing were his best subjects.

Gardiner was five years and 8 months old when seen for the first time. Other than a retardation in talking, his developmental history was average. He was extremely timid and shy crying at the slightest provocation. The child was also very dependent upon his mother.

The first psychological examination gave Gardiner a mental age of 4 years with an I. Q. of 70. His only failure in the three year level was the repeating of the sentences. In the 4th year he failed the drawing of the square and the repeating of the digits and sentences. Items 1 and 4 were his successes in the 5th year and he scored the alternative in the 6th year. In the non-verbal tests his score was equivalent to that of 5 years, even

though he was tense and excited during the examination.

Fourteen months later Gardiner was given the second psychological examination. His chronological age was then 6 years and 10 months while his mental age was 6 years and 2 months with an I. Q. of 89. In the 4th year he failed again the repeating of the digits and sentences. There were no failures in the 5th year. His only failure in the 6th year was the repeating of the sentences. In the 7th year he failed items 1, 2, and 4 but scored the picture item, the giving of differences and the drawing of the diamond. His rating on the non-verbal tests were fully equivalent to his chronological years. His method of working, his resourcefulness, his ability to use well his material gave evidence that his true ability was greater and that the Stanford score did not do him justice. Were Gardiner given credit for the memory span items, his Intelligence Quotient would be fully 100 or more.

Reference to his first report brings out, as in Kenneth's, his poor memory span. He failed, the second time, the repeating of the digits and sentences in the 4th year. His only failure in the 6th year was the repeating of the sentences and he failed in the 7th year the repeating of the digits. These he failed while scoring such items as giving differences and the drawing of the diamond. The second examination shows also the constant development in other things while showing no improvement in his auditory span. The perceptible increase of seventeen points in his second examination confirms again the evidence of the injustice that the Stanford scale does to the young child with a short auditory span. Gardiner was failing first grade in school.

At 8 years and 7 months Charles' immediate memory span was much below the average. At 4 years and 4 months he was given the first psychological examination. His mental age on the Stanford

scale was then 3 years with an Intelligence Quotient of 70. He was classified as Border-line or possibly Feeble-minded. Twenty-eight months later, and when he first entered school he was given another test. His mental age was then 6 years and 4 months with an I. Q. of 92. Later his school reported of him that he was doing well in arithmetic, but that his spelling was poor and that he seemed to have no sense of sound. When Charles was 8 years and 7 months old he was given another psychological examination. His mental age then was 8 years with an I. Q. of 93. Analysis of Charles's report shows that his failures were those of repeating digits, sentences and vocabulary. The raising of his score 22 points emphasizes once more the injury done on the Stanford Scale to the young child who has this handicap.

Did space allow, cases might be cited to illustrate some of the difficulties that the older boy and girl are working under who is handicapped by a short auditory span. We would find, as one often does, subjects scoring items on the higher levels, where the immediate memory does not play a large part, and failing such items as the repeating of digits and sentences on a much lower level. A brief summary of a case will suffice to bring out a few points.

Morris, 18 years old, was having great trouble meeting the College requirements in French. Particularly did he find conversational French difficult. In his early school life he had with difficulty learned to read and he was still a poor speller.

The Stanford Revision scale proved that he was of Average Adult intelligence. In his report his poor auditory span was very evident. The repeating of the sentences in the 10th year was given with much confusion. He failed the digits forward in the 14th year; the repeating of the digits backward in the average adult level, and, needless to say, would and did fail items 3, 4 and 5 in the Superior Adult level.

It is not puzzling to see why Morris was having trouble with his French and, especially, why he was all at sea when the language was spoken. In the foreign language he was meeting similar obstacles as those he had encountered when a young child while learning to speak the English language. His short immediate memory still does not allow him to carry large numbers of new unassociated sounds and when he gets beyond his capacity it all becomes confusion to him. It hinders him from getting the technical, mechanical side of language. Did he persevere until he passed to the more abstract he would doubtless do well just as he is doing in English. His Stanford examination showed that he had at his command a good vocabulary; that he was able to define words well; that he was capable of making fine discriminations between abstract words and that he could deal abstractly with language. His failure in language was of another kind and it was closely associated with the immediate memory.

As previously stated, the experiments and studies made upon the memory span have produced interesting results, although in no way telling us as to just what is involved in a poor memory span. From his experiments in 1917 and carried on with some two thousand subjects including boys and girls in the grade schools, boys in the Trade Schools and College students, H. J. Humpstone concludes that an immediate auditory span is a definite congenital capacity which cannot be increased; that it is not a test of memory, of intelligence, of attention, of imagination, but all are involved. He claims that it tests an ability to grasp and to associate a number of discrete units of perceptions into a definite order. His results showed furthermore that the higher the grade the larger is the percentage of pupils of a given chronological age succeeding on a given number of digits. Of the 10 year old children in the second grade, 33 per cent had a span of 5 or

more; of those of the same age in the third grade, 57 per cent had a span of 5 or more; of those in the fourth grade 88 per cent had that span or more. He also found from his study that there were no sex differences. "We have also found in our work with children," he writes "that deficient associability usually is accompanied by difficulty in learning. Children who are advanced in school (under age for grade) have longer memory spans than those at age for grade and they again longer than those over age for grade."¹

In 1923 Arthur S. Clark gave the digit span test to 50 boys and girls of the 9th B class in the Junior High School and correlated it with the results of the Detroit Group Test which had also been given the group. Of his results he writes "The memory span shows no correlation with the general intelligence. From these tests it is an ability distinct from general intelligence as measured by these particular tests. Negro children were in every instance among the lowest percentile while they gave a digit span of 8 and 9 placing them among the highest 10 per cent in memory."²

Other investigators have arrived at similar results. McCauley in her test of a thousand children who were unable to make the normal progress in school confirms the findings that a good span is of value for educability in many ways. While a good span is not always indicative of ability a poor span is significant of unsatisfactory progress. She also suggests that an auditory span of 5 at least is necessary in order to maintain a place as a normal member of society.³

Many more studies need to be made before all the facts pertaining to the

auditory span are known. At the best at present it is only a measurement of one phase of the auditory sense. To what degree, if any, an individual with a short auditory span is limited in range of hearing, in sound acuity, it has not been determined. That these children seem to possess little musical ability; that they are unable to make fine discriminations between different sounds; that they find it difficult to give a list of rhyming words may indicate that such disabilities are allied with a defective hearing sense. Unmindful for the present that these facts are unknown, a measurement alone of the amount of related or unrelated sound that a child can carry at one time is essential and productive of good results if recognized. It is not a matter of little importance when a child is found who has a short memory span, nor should it be treated lightly and indifferently. Too much is involved and the child who has this handicap should receive every consideration.

Particularly does the young child merit attention. Of all the senses the auditory sense is employed the most in the life of the young child and takes the lead. At no time in life also is the demand upon this sense greater. It plays a great part in language development for it is through this sense that the child receives his language patterns. It is well known that persons deaf to sound, never learn to use language audibly unless taught by some special method. The first requisite for learning to talk, apart from the mechanism which enables a child to hear sound, is the ability to carry and relate sound. The child must hear language patterns in order to imitate them. In the early stage of imitation the auditory span particularly plays an important role. When the language patterns are given in a larger number of sounds than he can carry and integrate the result must inevitably be one of confusion.

To one unfamiliar with these facts the addition of an extra sound or two may

¹Some Aspects of the Memory Span Test. Henry J. Humpstone, Ph. D. Experimental Studies in Psychology and Pedagogy, 1917.

²Correlation of Auditory Digit Memory Span with Intelligence. Arthur S. Clark, M. A., *Psy. Clinic*, Vol. 15, 1923. Pg. 259ff.

³A Study of the Relative Value of the Audito-Vocal Forward Memory Span and the Reverse Span as Diagnostic Tests. *Psy. Clinic* Vol. 16, 1925. 28 Pg. 277ff. Selinda McCauley.

seem of little importance, yet it has been observed again and again that the four year old child may repeat glibly a series of four digits and be a complete failure in the repeating of five. For some reason unknown the addition of an extra sound to a language pattern is great enough to throw the whole pattern into confusion.

The child with a short memory span should receive further consideration when the learning of rote material is required of him. Especially is this true if the material is given orally. If one phase of learning could be singled out above all others as being the most difficult, this doubtless would be found to be the one. The sounds given him soon become confusing because the number that he can carry and integrate is small. Songs, nursery rhymes or any rote material, given orally and presented in the average span length is much beyond his ability. He is unable by glib imitation to even give the impression that he has learned it and for that reason is often considered dull by both parent and teacher.

✓ Again this type of child merits consideration because his true ability is under-estimated. Such things as slowness in talking, in acquiring nursery rhymes or rote material of all kind often serve as an objective measurement of intelligence to those with whom he comes in contact. These are sometimes the criteria by which his mental ability is judged by parents and teacher. If he does not measure up to the average in these matters he is looked upon as being sub-normal and possibly feeble-minded. A mental test, which does not recognize his handicap confirms the suspicion by a low score, as has been shown, with the result that it is a long time, if ever, before the stigma is completely eradicated.

The extent to which a child is limited in his ability to carry sound should be recognized, by all means, when he enters the grades and begins his more formal education. From the six senses, formal education, in the main, utilizes only three,

namely, the auditory, visual and kinaesthetic. From among these three, the auditory takes the lead. Before the visual and kinaesthetic can be brought into play to any great extent, directions and instructions must be given orally. If the child is not getting these the stage is set early for failure in his school career. Reading and spelling, if taught by the phonetic method, are especially difficult. It may be pushing the case too far to say that the short auditory span is responsible for many of the reading difficulties and for much of the poor spelling found among children. While it cannot be stated that all reading disabilities are allied with poor memory spans, yet it can be stated with certainty that all poor memory spans are allied with difficulty in reading and spelling. The reason for this is obvious. It lies in the fact that from the first the child is constantly confused by sounds that are not clearly differentiated. Wrong associations are made, poor habits of spelling formed which are only with great difficulty replaced with better ones.

Not the least of the difficulties which the child with the poor auditory span has to contend with is the mental attitude which he builds up toward himself and his abilities. His language retardation assists in building up a dependence on others; he cannot keep abreast with the increasing demands that his environment makes upon him and so he seeks the help of others. In school he soon learns that he cannot perform the feats of memorizing that his schoolmates can; that he does not get the directions given by the teacher; that he confuses commissions when sent on errands. He begins to think himself stupid and believes that others regard him as such. He soon loses confidence in his ability and shrinks from asserting himself. His feelings of inadequacy tend to make him withdraw from his social group or he builds up compensatory reactions unfavorable to himself and to his social behavior.

Such are the disadvantages that a child handicapped with a short auditory span has to undergo. Some of these are quite in accord with other studies that have been made. Humpstone and McCauley both brought out the fact that deficient associability is accompanied by difficulty in learning and slow progress in school. Clarke showed that there was no correlation between a poor immediate memory span and intelligence. These facts are in agreement with the few cases reported in this paper, as illustrative of this type of child. The few subjects presented were all having difficulty in school, although all were of normal intelligence. If the children are normal, the question might then be asked, must associability necessarily continue to be allied with slow school progress. A working out of methods suitable for children limited in this respect and their application can be the only answer. However it should be remembered now that the memory span is only a measurement of one of the ways that a child gets his facts, and, with the young child, as has been pointed out, it is the chief and first method of getting information. In no way it is a measurement as to how the child may use his facts after he gets them. The individual with a poor immediate memory may have difficulty in

getting his facts orally, but he may use them well when once he has learned them. He is quite different from and superior to the person who has no difficulty acquiring facts, but cannot do much with them when once he has them. It is in this respect that the child with the short auditory span does not get his rights. His disability prevents him from getting his facts orally, but it does not hinder him in making good use of them. This was shown by the subjects making the best scores in items of comprehension and reasoning.

It is very evident that the handicap of a short memory span cannot be minimized because of the disadvantages that one, who does not measure up to the average in this respect, undergoes. It is true also that the limitations that it imposes upon one are further reaching in their detrimental effect than is generally recognized. What some of these results are the writer has tried to point out. Further experimentation is needed as to the best methods necessary for the teaching of the child with the short auditory span so that his true ability will not be underestimated and that he will be helped to hold his place with the normal group where he rightfully belongs without ill effect to his own development, intellectually, socially and emotionally.



Leisure

What is this life if, full of care,
We have no time to stand and stare;
No time to stand beneath the boughs
And stare as long as sheep or cows;
No time to see, when woods we pass,
Where squirrels hide their nuts in grass;
No time to see, in broad daylight,
Streams full of stars, like skies at night;
No time to turn at Beauty's glance,
And watch her feet, how they can dance;
A poor life this if, full of care,
We have no time to stand and stare!

W. H. DAVIES

Blocks and the Four-Year-Old

EVA LEAH HULSON and HELEN L. REICH

Critic, Chicago Teachers' College and Publication Assistant, Child Welfare Research Station,
Iowa City, Iowa

BLOCKS were found to be the favorite play material of a group of four-year-old children, whose play and use of play materials was observed during a free play hour in a pre-school laboratory group. In addition to the children's choices and uses of play materials, a study was made of their play with blocks. Children seemed to be interested in blocks because of the opportunity they offer to build or create things, for the activity resulting from use of blocks as play materials was most often building.

In the study of children's use of blocks and their block constructions, the number and kinds of blocks preferred was investigated and the types of constructions made were observed. The choice of blocks was limited, of course, for in the play room only six kinds were available. These were lettered A, B, C, D, Z, and PH (Patty Hill). The A blocks were the brick shaped blocks from the enlarged Froebel gift blocks which are 4 inches by 2 inches by 1 inch; the B blocks were the cube blocks 2 inches by 2 inches by 2 inches of the enlarged Froebel gift blocks; the C blocks were the pillar-shaped Froebel blocks measuring 4 inches by 1 inch by 1 inch; the D blocks were one-half the size of enlarged Froebel gift blocks which are 2 inches by 2 inches by 1 inch; and the Z blocks were the large blocks 12 inches by 6 inches by 6 inches. There were about 400 A, B, C, and D blocks available, 30 Z blocks, 27 of the three-foot, and 8 of the two-foot board length Patty Hill blocks.

An attempt was made to find out which type block was preferred by the children. From a test situation involving twenty-four children and the A, B, C, and D

blocks the A block was markedly preferred until its supply began to run low. The C block was consistently favored and the D block was the least used not being chosen until the supply of other blocks ran low. The choices were limited by the limited number of blocks included in the experiment.

After selecting blocks for play material the most common activity was the building of buildings of one sort or another. Frequently two children seemed to be working on one construction quite independently of each other; then again one would direct the building while another assisted, in such case the second child's activity was said to be "helps build." Other activities ensuing from block play were named "knocks blocks down," "carries," "jumps from," "sits on blocks," "climbs block pile," and "piles." Usually the constructing was the main interest of the child but occasionally after completing the structure he would spend an appreciable period of time playing with his creation. This activity was termed "dramatizing." During the observations of block play in the free play period, "building" was noted 110 times, "helps build" 57 times, "knocks down" 40 times, "carries" 21 times, "jumps from" "dramatizing," and "sits on blocks" each 16 times, and "climbs block pile" and "piles" were each observed 11 times.

Many of the constructions observed were not named spontaneously by the children and so were listed as miscellaneous since, in the statement of the study, no names were to be directly solicited from the children. Other times children named their structures or called them just buildings. In 110 instances

miscellaneous structures were observed, 56 buildings were noted, 48 trains, 30 tracks, and 28 boats. Other constructions noted in fewer numbers were aeroplanes, fire engines, towers, doll beds, a honeycomb form, theaters, skates, and bridges. These were names given spontaneously by the child.

Other children were most often used as an accessory for carrying on the building plan. The block box was a favorite spot in which and on which to work, and

Give what you remember he built. From this no definite conclusions could be drawn but the responses did permit certain statements. A fairly close agreement was indicated between the constructions observed during the play period in the preschool group and those made at home. The predominating type of block in the home was the cube. Oblong, round, triangular, miscellaneous, board, cylinder post, and hexagonal blocks were found in the order named. Most of the chil-



Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, Iowa City, Iowa

Blocks which stimulate original building are preferred to those which must be used in a definite way.

children, two or three at a time, frequently climbed inside the box and built around the edges and against the sides. The doll stood fairly high as an accessory and the kiddy kar was important in hauling blocks.

An interesting phase of the study of block play was a questionnaire sent to parents to find whether the home play equipment was such as to help give the child a preference for blocks. This questionnaire asked: (1) What blocks did your child have before entering preschool? (2) Did the child use them—seldom, often, most of the time? (3)

dren, six out of ten, played often with blocks at home, three seldom played with them, and one played with them most of the time. The one using them most of the time at home used them most of the time at school. Of those using blocks at home all but two used them most at school. Of the three using them seldom at home, two used them most at school, and one used the seldom at school.

The type of block seems to have a definite bearing upon their use. Those which stimulate original building are preferred to the ones which must be used in a definite way or in only one

pattern. Some children who had only cube blocks seemed to have grown beyond the stage where they were an interesting material. The value of blocks as a play material is being increasingly recognized but it would seem that they must be adapted to a child's stage of development and must be varied enough in kind to permit numerous types of constructions.

From a detailed observation of block constructions in a test situation where a box of 100 blocks, 25 each of the A, B, C, and D blocks were used certain constructions were noted and described. A honeycomb structure was made by placing blocks in rows with spaces between, often one row of

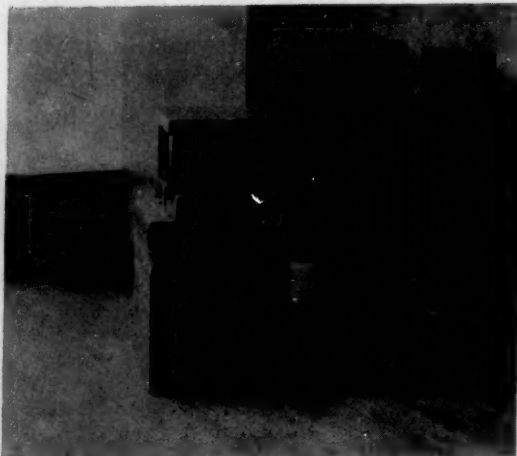
blocks was placed on top of another. A method termed "fitting" was used to describe the placing of blocks one on another and fitting or arranging so as to make a solid pile or wall. Piling was the placing of blocks in haphazard fashion. The tower constructions were built by

placing a series of blocks on top of one another. Reproduction was the term used in describing a construction with a definite form or outline and resembling to some degree the structure as named by the child. Selection was the choosing of certain blocks and the building of a construction not recognizable as a reproduction.

Reproduction was the usual and most frequent type of construction, and the name house was the one most often given structures.

In selecting play materials for the young child blocks should be definitely included. Although in this study the A block, measuring 4 inches by 2 inches by 1 inch, was the preferred block, a variety of types

should be chosen. Blocks that permit only one type construction should be avoided for they are not conducive to original building and diminish the most important value blocks have as a play material, namely, the opportunity to create numerous things.



Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, Iowa City, Iowa

Sometimes the children named their structures—often they called them just buildings.



Before Green Apples Blush

Before green apples blush,
Before green nuts embrown,
Why, one day in the country
Is worth a month in town.

CHRISTINA G. ROSETTI

Diary Record -- Making a Boat

RUTH H. STECK

Student Teacher, Hartford Avenue Kindergarten, Hartford, Connecticut

I. ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT

SEPTEMBER 18—THURSDAY

During vacation some of the children had taken boat trips and for a week or so they talked informally among themselves about boats. This week individual boats were built of blocks very crudely, but nothing large or permanent.

SEPTEMBER 19—FRIDAY

Some pictures of boats were put up and Miss J. and Miss H. went to Travel Bureau over week end to get other pictures. Many little individual boats were built of blocks.

SEPTEMBER 22—MONDAY

One boy began to build a lighthouse with blocks. He built only the top part round, so Miss M. showed him a picture and he saw that the entire lighthouse was built like a round tower from the base up. Blocks were taken down, the boys began again and built a round one.

SEPTEMBER 23—TUESDAY

During a conversation period Miss M. commented on the well built lighthouse and asked, "Of what use are lighthouses?" "What good do they do?" Immediately one boy said, "They are to show ships where to come in the harbor at night." Miss M. then told about another kind which warned ships of dangerous rocks. Another boy said, "Well, why couldn't we build a big ship?" Miss M. gave her approval, so children built one of blocks very crudely. There were constant changes and additions. The front end had a point and the rear was built round. Seats, a cabin, and gang plank were added. There was much dramatic play of a very simple type. The children took turns at being the pilot, captain, and passengers. A wooden box

and a round wooden wheel on an iron pole comprised the pilot's steering apparatus.

SEPTEMBER 24—WEDNESDAY

Children rebuilt the cabin, put a roof over it of long boards, and a chair in it. They began to play in the boat again when Donald said he'd like to make some tickets and have a ticket office. A small wall of blocks was put up and a chair placed behind it. Tickets were cut from paper. Later there was a discussion about improving the boat and ticket office. One boy said the cabin was too small; besides, the blocks were crooked and might fall over. The roof of the cabin also might cave in at any time.

SEPTEMBER 25—THURSDAY

A boy cut a life saver from paper. The boat was partially rebuilt, more blocks added, and so forth. Pictures of the inside and outside of a big ship were shown. (Pictures in a booklet from the Travel Bureau and also the picture of a large ship in the Book of Knowledge.) During the conversation period a child suggested that they bring orange crates to nail together to build a larger, stronger boat.

SEPTEMBER 26—FRIDAY

Two boxes were brought in by two different boys, and two were furnished by Miss M. The boys who brought boxes were allowed to nail them together. The ticket office was rebuilt, but there was little or no improvement. There was much interest in tickets on the part of many children, so Miss M. took a group at a separate table where all the ticket printing was done. This group of children decided to make tickets for India, England, France, Chicago, Michigan, and Jerusalem.

SEPTEMBER 29—MONDAY

Entire Kindergarten took trip to Lake Park to see the boats, harbor, and lighthouse. On way through park they began singing, "I see the lighthouse," "I see the lighthouse." From top of hill they saw harbor, two boats leaving it and one passing another out in lake.

SEPTEMBER 30—TUESDAY

Several very good drawings and paintings of boats and lighthouses, all showing marked improvement over those drawn before the picnic trip. Two (double) orange crates were nailed together with boards at top. Small group of children worked on printing tickets to Chicago and Michigan. During music period children composed a song about trip. "A Story About Boats" was read to the children and illustrations shown.

OCTOBER 1—WEDNESDAY

One child, who made boat of wood at home brought it to school to paint red. Other boxes nailed together with boards. Many problems arose as to length, thickness, and strength of boards to use; size of nails. Continued work on tickets by a small group.

OCTOBER 2—THURSDAY

Miss M. brought in globe of world. Much interest shown on part of children. Opportunity for good geography lesson. During conversation period different children asked where Chicago and Michigan are. How far is it to France, England? How do we go to India, Jerusalem, and China. They were also shown and told about the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, Mediterranean Sea, Lake Michigan, and San Francisco. At this time price of tickets was changed to more realistic sums, such as, Chicago—\$1.00; Michigan—\$3.00; France—\$125.00; Jerusalem—\$600.00; India—\$500.00. Children decided to charge more to go to places farther away. Children began making suitcases of heavy paper.

OCTOBER 3—FRIDAY

Smoke stacks made of heavy wrapping

paper rolled—not stiff or strong enough. Miss S. suggested that children bring oat meal boxes. Miss M. put up large map of Wisconsin and Lake Michigan. Ralph brought a map to school. Pictures of boats changed, more new ones added. Nonny made small boat of wood and two spools at school. Painted it blue. Many very fine drawings and paintings of boats and lighthouses were mounted on the bulletin board and put around room. Children began work on covering side of boat with heavy brown wrapping paper. Again many problems arose as to length to cut paper, involving measuring side of boat, kind and size of nails,—tacks; use of chairs to reach top of boat, use of heavy stiff paper under tacks so paper covering would not tear. With Miss L.'s help, one boy attempted to make a captain's cap of heavy paper. Continued work on the suitcases. Making money introduced. Very naturally making of purses followed.

OCTOBER 6—MONDAY

Oat meal boxes brought for smoke stacks—fastened together with paper fasteners, covered with white paper and red and black. Finished covering side of boat with paper. More money made of stiff paper. Some suitcases and purses also made.

OCTOBER 7—TUESDAY

Another smoke stack made of two more oat meal boxes. Top and bottom pieces of paper on side of boat fastened together with sticky paper. Back and front of boat built with blocks—round back and point at front. Tickets for each place a different color. Children suggested cutting square windows on top of boat and port holes on bottom.

OCTOBER 8—WEDNESDAY

Continued work on tickets. France—\$125.00. Few more suitcases and some money made. Some little dramatic play in boat. Table set up in front of fireplace for ticket office. Conversation: Carolyn all ready for her trip. Miss M.

had her show children her suitcase, purse, money and doll baby as a stimulus to encourage others to get ready for a trip. Newspaper articles read to children about ship lost in fog. New words explained—stranded, and so forth. Long flat board used as gang plank.

OCTOBER 9—THURSDAY

Children decided to have roof over boat. Only acceptable suggestion was to build opposite side with boxes and fasten paper across top. Tickets to India—\$500.00. Thin green paper used to make dollars. Real money as sample for pattern. Newspapers received from upper grade to sell at ticket office. Dramatic play in boat. Town windows and port holes mended with sticky paper.

OCTOBER 10—FRIDAY

Work on other side of boat begun. Procedure same as in beginning. Tickets to Jerusalem—\$600.00. More money made. Children who brought newspaper pictures of boats mounted them on stiff paper.

OCTOBER 13—MONDAY

Second side of boat finished and first piece of paper nailed across top. Medium weight brown paper used for pennies. More dollars made, also a few tickets. Frame of wooden box painted red to set on table for ticket office window.

OCTOBER 14—TUESDAY

Continued work on money. Nickels and dimes made of light stiff paper. Work on roof—measuring length to cut paper; number of pieces needed. Children working together, one holding paper tight across top while another nailed down one side. Conversation—another geography lesson showing distance of travel from one place to another on globe of world. Dick brought short newspaper article which teacher read to children. More new words: forepeak, cargo. Discussion about fog. Ted explained what fog was like and why it was dangerous for ships to be out on lake during fog. Necessity of fog horn explained. Top part of boat

painted red. Teacher brought flash light for lighthouse.

OCTOBER 15—WEDNESDAY

Roof of boat completed. Continued working on money. Third smoke stack made of oat meal boxes. Dick began to make cash register out of card board box for money taken in at ticket office. Drawer made an entire register painted black. Finished painting top part of boat. Charles brought flash light.

OCTOBER 16—THURSDAY

Dick finished cash register by pasting handle on drawer and numbers on outside of box to represent amount to be rung up. Because roof sagged (due to not stretching paper across top tight enough), children decided to use a sticky paper to hold pieces together so there would not be holes or cracks in the roof. A second coat of red paint was given top part of boat. Children finished up suitcases, purses, and money getting all ready to buy tickets for trips. Dramatic play—organized and directed by Miss M.—not so spontaneous.

OCTOBER 17—FRIDAY

Charles brought suit case and money to school that he made at home. More Michigan tickets made. Miss S. brought thin rope to school which suggested to children making a mast and anchor. Continued painting second coat of red on top of boat and began black on bottom. Making of red caps, caps for captain and pilot begun. Billy brought flash light.

OCTOBER 20—MONDAY

Hovie drew another very fine picture of boat. Some of the children continued painting the bottom part of the boat black. One boy made an anchor by tying a block on the end of a rope. A few made caps, some money, and some tickets to Michigan. During conversation period children talked about bridges—different kinds. Miss S. told them of kind that swung around rather than opened up. One boy suggested we build a bridge of tables and boards or chairs and boards.

OCTOBER 21—TUESDAY

Charles brought spy glasses to school. One boy made a flag for the boat. Miss L. brought out real flag for boat. A temporary bridge was built in front of boat by placing boards across two chairs. Two tugs were built. Miss M. re-stimulated interest in dramatic play by calling children's attention to them. Some dramatic play then. During conversation period Charles showed second suitcase he had made at home which he thought was better than the first. He told children he worked an hour on it and showed the safety pin he had as a clasp. He also showed his spy glasses and money. Dick suggested there be some water around the boat. Ted suggested we build a freight boat to carry coal, and Tim immediately said there really ought to be a lot of little boats. He asked about where there could be a dining room and beds. He wanted the smoke stacks in the middle of the roof of the boat instead of on one side of the roof. The impossibility of this was explained to him. Some wanted a furnace in the boat and Ted promised to bring a small box to use for one.

OCTOBER 22—WEDNESDAY

Jerry and Gordon painted some water on heavy brown wrapping paper. A ventilator was made by one child. A megaphone was also made of heavy paper. During conversation period a picture was shown of an aviator locating his destination on a globe. The globe of world was brought in and several places located: China, France, Minneapolis. Poems read, "Tugs" and "Freight Boats." Dramatic play.

OCTOBER 23—THURSDAY

Edward made another ventilator. During conversation period many picture post cards of ships with names were shown. This was done to suggest the idea of a name for boat children made. One boy said the tug he built was called "Milwaukee River Tug." Much dramatic play. Joe, of his own accord,

made mast for boat by nailing board on wooden box and tacking on rope.

OCTOBER 24—FRIDAY

During conversation period Miss M. talked to children about travel on a real boat—how much care the captain would take of his passengers and what he would do in case of a leak. Real use of life preservers was explained. Some pictures shown. One child suggested painting the name "Welcome" on big boat. Edward painted ventilator red he made day before and made a megaphone and painted it brown. Tug rebuilt. Dramatic play.

OCTOBER 27—MONDAY

Entire period spent in dramatic play. No construction work.

OCTOBER 28—TUESDAY

Boys took down first lighthouse and rebuilt one with blocks around it for rocks. Edward made a captain's cap. Eugene and Jimmy both brought a compass.

NOVEMBER 3—MONDAY

Miss M. brought a small desk for ticket office. Some dramatic play.

NOVEMBER 4—TUESDAY

Miss M. brought bell for boat. Dick nailed boards up for rigging. Emergency brake made of board nailed on box inside boat in pilot's cabin. Ted began work on a radio for boat.

NOVEMBER 6—THURSDAY

During a conversation period one child said, "We could make a clock." Another said, "Why don't we paint letters on the side of our boat?"

NOVEMBER 7—FRIDAY

Rigging put up on boat. Children decided on "Wisconsin" for name of big boat. Large box used for life boat. Dick printed name "Welcome" on paper and tacked it on side.

II. TEACHER CONTRIBUTIONS

MATERIALS

1. Two orange crates.
2. Paper—green and brown—and real money for pattern.

3. Flash light.
4. Rope.
5. Bell.
6. Flag.

PICTURES

1. Boats—various types; inside and outside; portholes and windows.
2. Lighthouses.
3. Post cards of boats with names.

MAPS

1. Large map of Wisconsin and Lake Michigan.
2. Globe of world.

INFORMATION

1. Different kinds of lighthouses.
2. Different kinds of bridges.
3. Location and distance of cities and countries; lakes and oceans.
4. Newspaper article about caught on sand bar in storm read to children and words explained: stranded, cargo, forepeak.
5. "Story About Boats" read.
6. Poems. (Listed under Knowledges.)

SUGGESTIONS

1. To have picnic at Lake Park to see lighthouse.
2. To change price of tickets to real amounts.
3. To use stiff paper under tacks so paper on side of boat would not tear.
4. To bring oat meal boxes for smoke stacks.
5. To play—going on trip.

HELP IN CONSTRUCTIONS

1. Of rear end of boat—built round with blocks and front to a point. (Children could not visualize this until given a start.)
2. Of roof—measuring, cutting and tacking paper across top.
3. Of cash register made of cardboard box.
4. Of smoke stacks.
5. Of "Red Caps;" pilot's and captain's caps.
6. Of megaphones.
7. Of ventilators.

STIMULATED DRAMATIC PLAY

1. By calling children's attention to tugs built.

2. By suggesting trip.
3. By playing with children.
4. By telling stories and reading newspaper articles.

III. CHILDREN'S CONTRIBUTIONS

1. Orange crates.
2. Oat meal boxes.
3. Flash light.
4. Spy glasses.
5. Compasses.
6. Newspaper articles and pictures of boats.
7. Drawings and paintings of boats and lighthouses.
8. Water painted on heavy paper.
9. Life saver cut from heavy paper.
10. Tickets printed for Chicago, Michigan, India, Jerusalem, and France.
11. Suit cases, money and purses made out of paper.
12. Smoke stacks made.
13. Cash register made.
14. Red caps, captain and pilot caps made.
15. Ventilators and megaphones made.
16. Flag made for boat.
17. Mast and rigging made.
18. Anchor made with rope and block.
19. Small individual boats and larger boats built of blocks.
20. Lighthouse built of blocks.
21. Tugs built of blocks.
22. Bridge built with boards and chairs.
23. Frame of wooden box painted red to set on table for ticket office window.
24. Two small boats of wood made and painted.
25. Suggestion for ticket office and tickets.
26. Suggestion for places boat could go: India, China, England, France, Jerusalem, and so forth.
27. Children sang "I see the lighthouse." (Suggestion for song.)
28. Questions about distance and location of lakes, oceans, cities, and countries.
29. Decision to charge more for tickets to countries farther away.

30. Suggestion for windows and port holes in boat.

31. Decision to have roof on boat.

32. Suggestion to have water around boat.

33. Name for tug boat suggested—"Milwaukee River Tug."

34. "Welcome" name suggested for life boat.

35. "Wisconsin" name suggested for big boat.

36. Ted gave fine explanation of fog in answer to children's questions about it.

37. Carolyn first one all ready for trip. Had suit case, purse, money, and doll which stimulated further interest and encouraged others to prepare for trip.

IV. OTHER TYPES OF WORK WHICH GREW OUT OF BOAT INTEREST

1. MUSIC

During music period a song was composed about trip to Lake Park.

2. DRAWING AND PAINTING

There were many fine drawings and paintings of boats and lighthouses.

Cutting and mounting pictures of boats from newspapers.

Painting work on boat. Use of Fresco paint.

Painting—blue water on heavy wrapping paper.

3. CONSTRUCTION

Paper

Tickets were made so trips to different places could be taken on boat.

Making suit cases out of heavy paper.

Making caps for captain and pilot out of heavy paper. Money made of paper. Also purses. "Red Caps" made of paper and painted.

Flag drawn and cut out.

Ventilator and megaphone made of heavy paper.

Cardboard, Boxes

Oat meal boxes used to make smoke stacks.

Work with cardboard boxes—making cash register.

4. WOOD WORK

Some individual wood work at home and at school. Two children made boats and painted them.

Little wood work in knocking out bottom of box and painting frame red to use for ticket office window.

Mast made of box, board and rope.

5. BLOCK BUILDING

Building lighthouse of blocks.

Tug boats built of blocks.

V. KNOWLEDGE AND INTELLECTUAL LEADS

SOCIAL SCIENCES:

Geography

Maps, globes—what they are used for. Location of cities and countries: lakes and oceans.

Distance between cities and countries.

Travel

By boats or ships, ocean liners, trains, airplanes.

Length of time required, cost.

PRINTING:

Letters of cities and countries on tickets. Own name on pictures and newspaper articles brought to school and mounted.

Numbers in price on tickets, making money.

LITERATURE:

Stories

"A Story About Boats."

"Fog Boat Story."

"The Tug That Helped."

Newspaper articles of ships lost in fog and stranded on rocks.

Poems

"Sing Song"—Christina Rossetti.

1. "Boats Sail on the Rivers."

"Songs for Youth"—Rudyard Kipling.

1. "Big Steamers."

"I Go A-traveling"—James Tippet.

1. "Tugs."

2. "Boats."

"Taxis and Toadstools"—Rachel Field.

1. "Fog."

2. "I'd Like to be a Lighthouse."

"Cambridge Book of Poetry for Young People"—K. Grahme.

1. "Sea Shell"—Amy Lowell.
2. "I Saw a Ship A-Sailing."
3. "The Sea Gypsy"—Richard Hovey.

Original Poems by director of Kindergarten.

1. "Boats"
2. "The Lighthouse."

LANGUAGE:

Growth of vocabulary. New words: freighter, cargo, forepeak, stranded, life preserver. Opportunity for oral expression in conversation period. During rest period children pretended to be asleep on boat and dream. When they awoke they told their dreams. Most of them rather wild about drowning, sinking, or ship wreck.

Miss M. told children French word for office, read some German, and one little boy said a Hebrew prayer. This was a result of conversation about language in foreign countries.

VI. DRAMATIC PLAY

While children were building, adding to boat, tearing down and buiding up again, they played. Took turns at being pilot, captain, and passengers. No chairs, no order or management. Any one at wheel called himself pilot. Captain appointed himself to order others around. Children just walked in boat and said they wanted to go to Chicago. Much shouting—"All aboard."

Play very simple and spontaneous. A few chairs brought in for passengers. Wooden box used for pilot's seat.

A few children who had suit cases, but no money and vice-versa wanted to get on boat. Those running boat would not let them. Some, however, walked in and sat down pretending boat was going. A board was used for a gang plank.

Several brought newspapers to read while on boat trip. Ticket agents, not knowing price of newspapers wanted to charge ten cents.

With Miss M.'s suggestion children pre-

pared for long over night trip to Michigan. All those who had suit case, purse and money and were all ready to purchase ticket for trip were allowed to do so, and to get into boat and wait for it to start. Other children sat on floor and watched. Some went into boat without coats or hats. At Miss M.'s suggestion they got their wraps. Some brought their doll babies. Henry, at ticket office, sold some papers as magazines for fifteen cents and newspapers for three cents.

One child, "At the station there are people who help carry suit cases."

Miss M. "What do we call them?" Children, "Red caps."

Group decided to have "Red Caps." Twins took that position.

Boat started on trip after supper. As dusk came on shades were drawn part way. Men at ticket office put on coats and went home. Children watching play, pretended they went home and went to bed. Shades drawn entirely. Lighthouse keeper lived near lighthouse and turned on flashlight. Several children pretended to be fog horns. As morning came shades were raised. Children got up. Ticket men went back to office and opened up. Boat reached its destination. Passengers left boat.

Two tugs built which re-stimulated dramatic play. Captain threw rope out to tug to pull boat in.

Billy—"I fixed the anchor."

Then tug pulled boat out of harbor. Attached rope to tug through window, then port hole of boat. Because this tore paper, rope was thrown over front of boat on blocks.

Billy—"Oh, some one's drowned. (Carried child in boat.) All aboard! Oh, the tug's pulling us."

Gordon—"I want to get on."

Billy—"You can't; you have no suit case, and besides the boat's going already."

Dramatic play with the tugs and of life saving. Children became very noisy and excited due to the nature of the play.

Billy—"Attach this (anchor) on the tug boat."

Dick—"This is a war boat. This is an army boat. The life saver is on the boat."

Billy—"Now the tug's pulling. I'll steer the boat."

Dick carried a flag around and just marched back and forth, sometimes waving it and yelling.

Miss S. suggested that the boat start on a trip, but then, said

Billy—"Oh, the boat's stuck on the shore."

Boy Passenger—"Hey there, that boat is stuck on a rock. Give me back my money for my ticket."

Ticket Manager—"I will have to talk with one of the other men in the office. (Soon he returned and gave back money for ticket.) That's being perfectly fair isn't it?"

This in the boat:

"Get the life saver!"

"Ding! Ding!"

At the ticket office:

Henry—"What would you like?"

Joan—"Ticket to France."

Henry—"Money, please."

In the boat again:

Billy—"One little girl wants to go to France."

Robert—"Well, she can't—we're going to India (Pulls in rope.) Go on Billy."

Billy—"Some one's sinking."

Robert—"Dickie has the life saver."

Billy—"Dickie, some one's sinking."

Dickie—"Henry?"

Billy—"No."

Billy slid off gang plank, fell in water and was drowning. Rescuers came and carried him into boat. Dramatic play was very wild. Many children drowned. This is when director called group together and talked about real trips—how careful captains and crew were in order to direct attention from this last type of play.

Boat went to India. Some children read books on boat. Dick used megaphone—"Boat's going to start in a few

minutes. Boat's near harbor" Night on boat. Shades drawn.

Miss J.—"Now that it is night and dark out what do we do?"

Children—"Go to bed."

Miss J.—"All right, let's go to sleep. Good night."

Pilot of boat—"We stay up though."

Miss J.—"Oh, I forgot to tell some one to call me at nine o'clock."

Dick—"Now it's nine o'clock."

Boat sprung a leak. Passengers wore life savers.

"Here's the life boat." Chairs set outside big boat where passengers sat.

Robert—"Let's start this boat a-going. It's going to Chicago. This boat's leaving. We're waiting for more passengers."

Billy—"He's taking suit cases."

Lennox—"In boat alone." "Toot! Toot!"

Edward—"We're not going to build tug boats any more."

Billy and Edward—"We're building another lighthouse with blocks for rocks around it."

Dick—"This is a fire boat, isn't it Bob?"

Bob—"What ever the teacher says."

Miss S.—"Oh, no, whatever you say. You are playing—only let's remember we're in Kindergarten and must not run or shout."

Dick—"Rushing out of boat to house" "Here's the fire."

Dick—"I'm going to fix the boat when there's a leak."

Edward—"I want to make some money."

Joe—"At ticket office" "Dick, haven't you any money over there?"

Dick—"Shaking head no" "I'm making checks."

In boat: "All aboard!" (Ringing bell). Fritz—"At ticket office" "Where do you want to go?"

Edward—"Michigan."

Charles—"May I mend this life saver?"

Dick—"Hey, get off of here. This is going."

Nonny—"Dickie, the brake's turned.

It's going, it's going. A leak! A leak!"

Dick—"Hey, there's a leak in the boat. Out, out, out!"

(Taking big box out of boat.) "This is going to be the "Milwaukee River Tug"—the "Welcome Tug."

Fritzi—"All aboard!"

Dick—"Give us the rope."

Mary Ann—"The ticket people won't come to our house for dinner."

Miss S.—"Well, perhaps they can't come today."

Dick—(Rushed out of boat and over to house and rang door bell.) "I'm the Doctor. Didn't you call me? Who is sick?"

Mother—"Oh, come in. Over here."

Dick then went to bed and looked at doll baby. Left house with apparently nothing more to say.

VII. MUSIC

All the way to Park and on walk through Park the children talked among themselves and with their teachers about the lighthouse they were to see. This aroused a feeling of expectancy and created a joyous happy atmosphere, so when they finally caught the first glimpse of the lighthouse there was a spontaneous burst of delight, which was expressed by a number of the group singing in a sing-song fashion, "I see the lighthouse," over and over again.

The following day during the music period Miss L. played the tune on the piano that the children had sung the

day before, but said nothing. Some recognized it immediately. The group gathered around the piano and sang together "I see the lighthouse." It was decided to repeat that part three times and in answer to Miss M.'s question, "Where did you see the lighthouse?" one child replied "Over at Lake Park," so that phrase was used to end the verse. Miss L. helped with melody of last phrase so that it would end on a finishing chord.

Then the other verses were composed using children's suggestions according to other things seen at Lake Park or out in the lake. After all words were chosen for four verses Miss M. called attention to the fact that we *were* at Lake Park *yesterday* and *saw* the lighthouse, for the children were using both past and present tense of verbs in singing different verses. Thus it was decided to use past tense all through the song.

The Lighthouse

1. I saw the lighthouse, I saw the lighthouse, I saw the lighthouse,
Over at Lake Park.
2. I saw the cannon, I saw the cannon, I saw the cannon,
Over at Lake Park.
3. Boats came out of the harbor, Boats came out of the harbor, Boats came out of the harbor,
Out in the lake.
4. One passed another, One passed another, One passed another,
Out in the lake.

The Lighthouse.



Problem Solving in the Second Grade

LEONA RUTH

Critic Teacher, Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Kentucky

ONE day the children of the second grade found, to their delight, the story of Raggedy Ann in one of their supplementary readers. It so happened that the kindergarten had a real Raggedy Ann doll which was borrowed to provide added interest. One of the children suggested playing the story.

The teacher, at this point, told them of an interesting puppet show which, a short time before, had been given by the Louisville Children's Theatre Guild. The children caught her enthusiasm and suggested that they put Raggedy Ann in a puppet show. They decided to call their show "Raggedy Ann in the Toy Store."

A puppet show of "Hansel and Gretel," given as an assembly program by a group of the college students, served to increase the interest of the children in their project. After seeing this program, many questions arose that called for constructive thinking on their part. They realized, for the first time, that they would need a background to show that the dolls were in a toy shop; also, a background to represent Molly's home on Christmas morning. They re-read the story to determine the number of characters needed for their show.

Where were they to get these dolls? How could they make the backgrounds? How many scenes should they have and what should they include in each one? These and many other problems arose for solution.

Miss Meyer, the art teacher, was called in to help them with the making of the dolls and the scenery. For the dolls they used paper bags in the manner described by Miss Martin in the January 1930 number of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. These paper bag dolls proved to be excellent

puppets. The hand and arm of the child holding one of them are easily concealed inside the bag which forms the body; and the arms, being made of paper, can be readily bent to pick up a smaller puppet.

The dressing of the dolls and the painting of the scenery were carried on at the same time.

It was quickly decided that Santa Claus's suit should be made of red crepe paper trimmed with white cotton batting. After some discussion the color of the dress of each doll was determined by the children. Original ideas for speeches and activities of the dolls were also suggested.

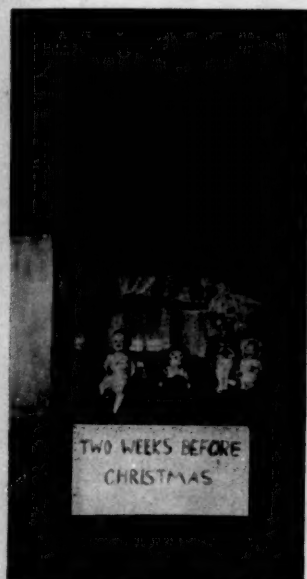
They decided that two shelves full of toys would be a proper background for the toy store, and that a large fire-place with a Christmas tree beside it would be an appropriate setting for Molly's home. The children sketched these scenes with chalk on large sheets of brown wrapping paper and painted them with calcimino.

Signs were planned and lettered by the children to accompany their respective scenes.

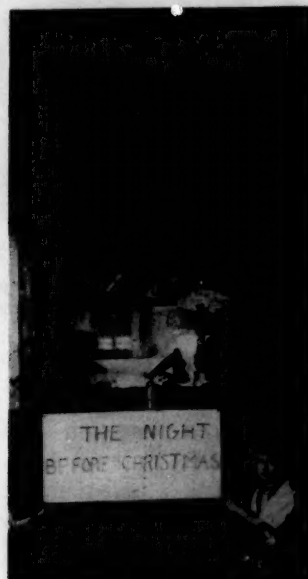
The prospect of giving their puppet show at a school assembly provided a motive for the sustained interest of the children in their project. Since the school theatre, designed especially for puppet shows, could not be kept in the classroom the children decided to turn their playhouse into a theatre. This again involved many problems that were finally solved by the pupils. How were the children who worked the puppets to be hidden? What material could be used for a curtain, and how could it be held in place? Where should the scenes be hung? When all these questions were finally answered



When the children decided how many scenes they should have and what they should include in each one, they planned and lettered the necessary signs.



SCENE 1
Dolls in the toy store.



SCENE 2
Santa Claus finds Raggedy Ann after the toy man has tossed her back on the shelf.



SCENE 3
Molly discovers her new rag doll.

to the satisfaction of the children, they were ready to give their show.

The scenes, three in number, were announced by a little Dutch doll.

Scene 1—The Toy Store. Two weeks before Christmas.

Scene 2—The Toy Store. The night before Christmas.

Scene 3—Molly's home on Christmas morning.

Aside from the joy which the children experienced while working on this project, many valuable social habits were

work sharing his ideas and planning with the class a satisfactory solution to each problem as it arose. They expressed creatively the ideas which came to them, judging the value of each in turn by the success of its application.

The children acquired additional skill in language, reading, drawing and industrial art. They also experienced the joy of sharing the results of their efforts with the children of other classes.

As an indication of the knowledge and skill acquired by the children through



Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Kentucky

The hand and arm of the child, holding one of the paper doll puppets, are easily concealed inside the bag which forms the body. The arms being made of paper can be readily bent to pick up a smaller puppet.

strengthened. They had a definite purpose in giving their puppet show, and they assumed the responsibilities which the project involved. Every child took his part in a big piece of co-operative

solving the problems that arose in connection with this project, they later planned and completed, with but little assistance from the teacher, a second puppet show of an entirely different type.

The Afternoon Nap in the Nursery School

ETHEL GORDON

Director, Hanna Nursery School, Cleveland, Ohio

IT is not intended that this paper shall attempt to prove any statements that it may make, but rather that it shall open to others in the field of preschool education some questions regarding the afternoon nap in the nursery school. One phase of the situation about which I have been particularly concerned, is that which has to do with so many children sleeping together, in such close proximity in one room. This practice is nearly 100% true in nursery schools where children stay through the nap period. I feel that both from the physical and the psychological view-point, there is something fundamentally wrong with this situation, and that by it we are creating an unwholesome and unnatural atmosphere.

Recently a questionnaire was sent out to eight nursery school teachers representing various types of nursery schools. It asked for information concerning the square feet of sleeping space and number of children taking naps in each room, the time each child got into bed and when he went to sleep. Remarks were to be included regarding the activity of each child during that space of time.

The replies show that the situation is the most nearly normal and wholesome in a nursery school where there are several small sleeping rooms, with no more than five children in any one. This, needless to say, is in a situation where there is plenty of staff, student teachers to help, in this case. Each room has thirty-six square feet of sleeping space per child, which is more than the minimum "best allowance" from the standpoint of physical health. No other nursery school in this group of eight has less than nine children sleeping in one room, and the figures range from that to twenty. In the case of this last one with twenty children, it has just

opened this past year, and although only accommodating that many now, and having fifty square feet of space per child, it has cots for thirty. When ten more children are added the amount of square feet per child will be cut to forty-four. This will still be "spacious," and qualify from the view-point of the standard amount given. Half of these nursery schools have less than thirty-five square feet of sleeping space per child, one going as low as twenty-two square feet.

From the data giving the length of time required by the children to go to sleep, I took two different situations to analyze, (a) the one in which there were only five children to a sleeping room and (b) ones where there were ten or more. In the Nursery School under (a) I found it took the group for the four days reported, on an average of eighteen minutes to get to sleep. The time taken by different children in the group varied from ten to twenty-five minutes. In nursery schools where there were ten or more in one room the figures on the whole were astonishingly higher. In the Nursery School having twenty in one room it took an average of forty-four minutes a day for the four days reported. No child went to sleep in less than twenty-five minutes, three children each took as long as an hour and a half once during that time, and almost every day at least one child did not sleep at all.

No conclusions however could be drawn from the above comparison, because so many possible variable factors needed consideration. Emotional and physical atmospheres differed in the sleeping rooms, and adult techniques varied. Perhaps one group had more younger children who would fall asleep more quickly, and another, more children in the age group where there was the beginning of cessation

in the afternoon nap habit. And so on.

In order to get two situations where these factors would be as nearly alike as possible, data was taken from the records of the oldest group of Nursery School children at the Child Development Institute, New York City. It was gathered from records of six children who were the only ones present in one sleeping room on four days in the early part of November. It was taken of these same children again a month later when there were

evidence to show that if the sleeping room contains many children, the naps will be shorter." Blatz and Bott in "Parents and the Preschool Child" believe that "if the routine schedule, feeding, elimination and needs of comfort are cared for, the child will sleep *if let alone*,"—if there is "*non-interference*." And again, "The infant sleeps naturally. The older child is more easily susceptible to external stimuli and is unable to inhibit an attentive attitude. Stimuli to his senses call forth re-

November—6 ch. in room daily					December—11 ch. in room daily				
Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Daily average for ind. child	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Daily average for ind. child
Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.	Min.
Dick13	25	25	25	22	60	50	55	No sleep	55
Tommy10	15	15	10	12	15	30	25	35	26
Francis20	15	30	20	21	25	25	30	45	31
Donald10	25	25	15	21	25	45	40	45	39
Mary10	20	20	25	18	25	25	30	10	22
Nina 5	30	20	10	16	75	25	25	30	39
Daily average for group				18	Daily average per group				35 plus

eleven children present in that same room. The figures tell the story.

The same teacher was in charge each time. Other things being equal, indications are that the added number of children in the room intensified the stimuli so that it took twice as long for children to get to sleep on days when the larger number was present. Dick is a typical example of the child who is easily stimulated by any movement in the room. Sometimes forty-five minutes elapse between the time the first and last child in the room gets into bed. Until the last child is in, and there is no sound in the room, Dick wants to see all that is happening. Then he settles down and in five or ten minutes is asleep.

Foster and Mattson in "Nursery School Procedures" say, "There seems to be some

sponses. His thoughts and memories also appeal." And later, "Sleep problems seldom appear in isolation."

In the 28th yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education we find as a "theory underlying sleep," that "consciousness is maintained by stimuli. When these are absent, sleep results." And later, "Companionship and distraction are not compatible with sleep."

I believe that sleep is an individual phase of life. Should we expect little children, whose habits are still in the moulding, to adjust to it as a social situation? We provide for small groups in eating, and allow ample room and opportunity, relatively speaking, for small play groups. Yet we crowd all of our children into a large group at nap time and expect relaxation. I cannot think of any other part of

the day in which we set the stage so poorly. We have heard that "non-interference" is necessary to sleep. The very fact that after the first child is in bed, another comes in, and though the first is drowsy and ready to sleep, the second makes ready for bed perhaps only two or three feet away,—this surely is interference. Bathrobe and slippers must be removed and the child tucked in. In a few minutes another comes in, and the process is repeated by different children, perhaps lasting as in one case mentioned above, forty-five minutes.

A principle underlying habit formation, and one which we often have to ignore under the present method, is that relative to not giving the child any attention once he is in bed, taking for granted of course that all of his needs have been attended to before getting in. With many children in one room the conspicuously noisy child who bounces up and down in bed, kicks the covers vigorously, calls out loudly and does other disturbing things, must receive the attention of an adult, if the rest of the group are to be protected. This of course is usually what he wants. He would probably settle down at once in isolation. But in so many Nursery Schools there is no extra room, or at least no adequate room, in which to put his bed. Quite often if there is any other than the bath room, it is in a room which is alive with a stimulating atmosphere of toys, or a mother-teacher or student-teacher conference is in progress. Or it may be a drafty, dusty, cloak room.

To quote Foster and Mattson in "Nursery School Procedures," . . . "Such children" (referring to those who do not sleep or who disturb) "should rest in a room by themselves." . . . "The child who does not sleep readily should be isolated if a small extra room is available." . . . "Once in a while there will be a child who is so noisy at nap time that he disturbs the sleep of others . . . such a child needs special attention in school. He cannot be ignored as he might be at home."

Are we sure that *all* children need a daily nap? According to contemporary writers on child care and training, no one has as yet proved that they do, and some are inclined to question it. We do know the value of a rest period of half an hour or so in the day for each individual,—a time when one can be alone, and quiet. With many children probably this should take the form of a nap, depending upon individual needs. But the question then arises as to which children do need one. We are told that robust children need less, fatigued and delicate children more. How is it then that Nursery Schools have the same requirements and standards for all their children regarding the nap period?

Figures given by different authorities differ tremendously in regard to the amount of sleep required at any given age. I have considered the tables of sleep given by the following: Fleming; Bott, Blatz and Chant; Faegre and Anderson; Waring and Wilker; Every Child's Dietary for Mothers and Children; Blanton; Hess; McCarthy; Lucas; Brown; and Veeder. From these tables the figures average twelve to thirteen hours of sleep for three, four and five year olds. There can be no sharp line of demarcation for any place within this group, because it is a proven fact that the amount of sleep taken by a child decreases in proportion to age, and the rate of decrease varies with individuals.

Three authorities who have quite objective data are Fleming, Chant and Blatz, and Faegre and Anderson. Their data was taken from nursery school records of children's sleep, and from questionnaires sent out to mothers. They run nearer to the twelve and twelve and one-half hour marks as averages, rather than the thirteen. For the four year olds who constitute a large part of the enrollment in many nursery schools, the greatest amount of total sleep that they recommend is twelve hours and seven minutes.

In one questionnaire sent out by Faegre and Anderson to find out the total amount

of sleep actually taken, they found an average of no more than twelve hours and four minutes for the two to five year old period. In this study the four year olds in the group getting the greatest amount of sleep had taken only eleven and three-fourths hours.

Miss Fleming shows through her study that the afternoon nap is almost a rule up to two and one-half years, but that, between 2½ and 3 years, 20% of the children take no naps; between 3 and 3½ years, 14% of the children take no naps; between 3 and 4 years, 20% of the children take no naps. Of 4 year olds, 50% of the children take no naps. A high percentage of the children of almost any nursery school group is then in this period of the gradual cessation of the habit of taking afternoon naps. Yet in most nursery schools they are required to take naps, and under what I would call unnatural conditions, rooms with anywhere from eight or ten, to twenty children. Regardless of the size of the room, is this condition wholesome, or "conducive to sleep," as psychologists agree it should be?

Miss Fleming found that the total amount of sleep was the same whether a child had taken a nap or not, and so concluded that "The length of the nap decreases at a rate comparable to that of the total sleep." Two mothers upon whom I could depend for accuracy kept records of their respective children during the afternoon nap time in Christmas vacation. It was found that on days when the child took no nap, he either fell asleep in a much shorter time that night than on days when he had had a nap, or else he slept longer the next morning. So the average total amount of sleep for the twenty-four hours did not deviate more than twenty minutes to half an hour. Four mothers voluntarily reported during a conference period, that their children had better night-sleep on week-ends, or during vacation time, than during the school week. Two of them felt that this was due to the fact that on those days at home the children did not take naps.

One mother asked us to wake her child promptly each afternoon at the nursery school after she had slept an hour, explaining that when she had any more than that, she wakened at five or five-thirty in the morning. Another mother, whose child sleeps only on an average of two or three afternoons out of a week, asked if her child might be allowed to have a book in bed on the days when she did not sleep, which is a reasonable request if we consider the individual's needs. During the two weeks' vacation at the Christmas holiday season, this child had not slept once in the afternoon but had had a quiet time by herself, undressed and on her bed, playing with her dolls and books. This mother said, as others have said of their children, that the child slept twelve hours or more at home each night and in her estimation did not need day time sleep. Are we taking stock of that child's need then when she gets back into the Nursery School situation and is expected to sleep each day?

Relative to this, Faegre and Anderson's report showed that by two years of age, sleep habits were fairly well formed, and that after that the afternoon nap often interfered with night sleep.

Records of the children's sleep in the oldest group of the Child Development Institute, New York City, show that the majority of the children average about twelve hours sleep a night, a few taking slightly less, and several getting more hours. Most of them go to bed between six-thirty and seven-thirty at night, and get up between those same hours in the morning. Any variation on the average is not more than half an hour either way.

Seashore recommends cutting the night sleep at the morning end, and getting the child up earlier if we wish to allow for an afternoon nap. Have we a right to ask parents at large to adjust the home schedules to that extent, when we consider some of the following home situations that exist? In some families the father or mother may not get home from work until six-thirty or seven o'clock, and

may want to spend a few minutes of the day with the child. In that case the bedtime hour is of necessity later, possibly seven-thirty or eight o'clock. This child then, getting to bed that much later, should not be wakened earlier in the morning. In another situation existing in many homes a parent may need to get up very early to get to work. If the living quarters are small or crowded, it might be much better not to have the child up during such rush hours. In a case like this which I have known personally, it was much better for all concerned that the child slept later. And again if the child must sleep in the room with his parents or with older brothers and sisters, many complications may arise by having the younger child waken an hour or so earlier than the rest of the family wish to do. I feel that the situation has to be met from the viewpoint of the best for all concerned, not forgetting the family itself.

A question relating to the lack of sunshine in the Nursery School child's day, particularly in winter, belongs in this paper, I believe, because it touches the nap question somewhat. As the Nursery School day is routinized now, in winter the child who goes to a school in the colder climates or even moderate climates, as New York City, gets very little benefit from sunshiny days. Until ten or ten-thirty on winter mornings the average play places (unless they are on roofs and these are in small proportion) are to a large extent in shadow. Up to that hour the sun is not very warm, and yet about this time of day or at least by eleven o'clock the children must go indoors and get ready for lunch. From then until three o'clock the children are indoors. It is in these hours, from eleven to three, that the sun's rays are most beneficial. In one Day Nursery situation where there are four nursery schools involved, the children's supper comes about three-forty-five, following the nap period very closely.

This means that the children in those Nursery Schools do not get out of doors until four-thirty and in that particular locality in winter it is quite dark by five o'clock. It is of course a case of relative values again, and these children need sleep so much, but how very much they also need sunshine! Could the Nursery School day's schedule in this case not stand some revising?

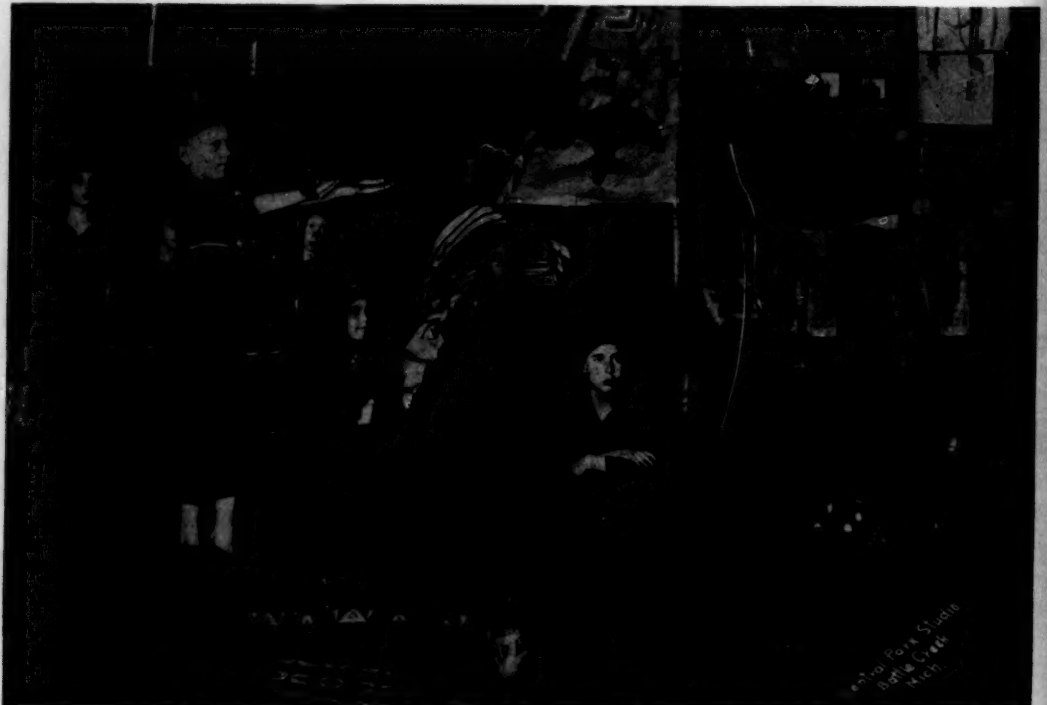
And that brings me to a theory that I have, which I feel might help the sleep situation, if we feel that that situation is not right and needs changing. If the Nursery School day, except in Nursery Schools which operate for philanthropic purposes and must continue full day programs,—if the day could be shortened, and include the nap period only for those children who need it, would it not help take care of children's individual needs, as well as help reduce these large numbers sleeping together? Aside from those which must operate on full day programs for philanthropic purposes, there are one hundred and fifteen in this country, of which sixty-five or seventy have "full day" schedules. Gesell says that it is unwise to recommend all day care "because as yet we are uncertain of the whole effect of such attendance upon children and of what standards should be required of institutions called Nursery Schools." Forest, in "Preschool Education," says "a half day provides for a child (1) social advantages to play with other children of his own age and (2) a break from the home situation to prevent fixation on the parents." Gesell says also in an article, "The Nursery School Movement," that the requirement of different children for different ages varies so much that our whole Nursery School practice might well be kept upon a basis flexible and adjustable."

If the preschool program could be so flexible that each child's sleep needs, as well as his food, play and all other needs, could be considered solely in relation to him, would we not be considering the "whole" child more completely?

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2



Second Grade, Battle Creek, Michigan

To the sound of beating drums, the Indian Medicine Man performs his ceremony before the wigwam door.

Health Education in Early Elementary Grades

RUTH ORGAIN

Kindergarten Critic, Central State Teachers College, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan

HEALTH education in the early elementary grades is no longer taught in a twenty minute period once a week, twice a week or daily as the case may be, but is taught through activities which allow for wholesome daily living. In an informal situation, where activities can be initiated and developed, sufficient opportunities arise for the teacher to catch and interpret health laws in meaningful terms. And sufficient opportunities also arise for the children to practice healthful habits, to develop attitudes, and to gain definite knowledge of health in its broadest meaning.

The idea of health education now widely accepted is that it should be concerned not only with physical but with mental and social health. The Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association states in its report, "Health Education," that "health education can be promoted only by emphasizing all aspects of health, physical, mental, social, moral. The teacher of health should look for normal development of the child from all of these points of view. The ideal of health is not mere freedom from obvious deformities and pathological symptoms. It is the realization of the highest physical, mental and spiritual possibilities of the individual."

This definition of health makes us realize that health education is not separate from education as a whole, but is one phase of it, so in a program of health education we would expect the same educational outcomes, that is, formation of attitudes, development of habits and the attainment of knowledge.

Besides these educational outcomes, a

program of health education also has health outcomes, that is, physical growth, correction of remediable physical defects, decreasing number of absences from school due to illness, healthful mental growth, and healthful development of the emotional and social life.

Too often in our school program has health education been neglected entirely or treated as a thing apart from our educational program. When it was included we have often only emphasized the educational outcomes and neglected the health outcomes or vice versa. The two can not be separated, but the first requirement in any health program is to put the child in as good physical condition as possible. Dewey says, "If we have reverence for childhood, our first specific rule is to make sure of a healthy bodily development." And Angelo Patri says, "school is wasted on a child who is not physically fit from his head to his heels."

Many teachers and parents do not know the characteristics of a normal child well enough to discover their defects, so the child should be given periodic health examinations and if there are any defects they should be corrected if possible, for unless these health handicaps are removed children can not be expected to form correct health habits.

This was illustrated by a case in our kindergarten. Bennie came to us a shy, timid, colorless, crying child. For days Bennie would hide and cry when brought into the school room. He entered into few of the activities, seldom talked and wanted to be left alone. He was given the usual physical examination by our physician but no defects were found. Our nurse examined his eyes, ears, muscular strength, etc., which she found satisfac-

tory. According to our charts his weight and height were also satisfactory. Still Bennie improved very little. We were keeping graphs periodically to verify the improvement of voluntarily flushing of toilet and washing of hands after going to the toilet and we found Bennie's name appearing very often. We spoke to his father. He attributed Bennie's frequent visits to the toilet to cold or nervousness. One morning Bennie cried every time he went to the toilet. The nurse came in but Bennie would not let her examine him. Not knowing the nature of the trouble she called his father. When he came he said it was either due to nervousness or some local trouble so he would take him home so his mother could examine him. In a day or so Bennie's parents had his urine examined and found him with a serious kidney infection. Bennie was treated and he gradually became a participating child. Before the year was out he developed into an all round individual.

In order to make clear how activities offered opportunities for health teaching and how they were interpreted to develop attitudes, habits and knowledge I shall describe and analyze a unit of work.

One morning early in the spring Mary came skipping into the room waving a paper bag. "I have some beans in here. I am going to plant them."

"Where are you going to plant them, Mary?"

"In a bowl. I am going to make a clay bowl as soon as I get off my wraps."

She made the bowl, let it dry, shel-laced it, went out for dirt, and planted her beans. Then she put the bowl in a north window. Each morning she examined the beans and watered them when she found the dirt dry. Two weeks passed and no sprouts appeared. One morning as the group was gathering for a conference Mary said, "I have cared for my beans every day but they have not come up." "Bring your beans over and maybe some of us can help you, Mary," said the

teacher. Mary brought the bowl and presented her problem to the group. After a discussion they decided that beans should be planted in a garden and not in a bowl. This led to a desire on the part of the group to have a garden.

After a visit to the superintendent of grounds a place was secured for a garden and work began in earnest. The ground was prepared, seeds of vegetables which they could eat and of flowers which would blossom in spring, summer and fall were brought by members of the group. The children printed signs to mark the rows (adults assisting), repaired and painted the trellis, mended the rock walk and built a rock wall. They never tired of visiting and working in the garden. Each morning, beginning with the one after they had planted the seeds, they looked to see what seeds were pushing through the ground. Needless to say the vegetables grew. And the time came when something had to be done with them.

One morning while working in the garden a child wanted to pick some mustard and carry it home. The children came together to decide about this and the discussion brought out that there would not be enough for everyone to have some to carry home. Another child suggested that we sell the vegetables and divide the money. Another suggested that we gather the vegetables and cook them at school. Everyone liked the idea and plans were made to cook a dinner at school.

They took stock of what they had in the garden that was ready to eat, mustard and turnip greens, lettuce, radishes and onions. They realized this was not sufficient for a dinner so decided to buy what was needed to go with these. The menu which was planned with very little guidance consisted of greens with boiled eggs; potatoes; vegetable salad of chopped onions, lettuce, radishes, and mayonnaise dressing (made by the children); butter; sweet milk; corn bread sticks; and chocolate pudding.

The day arrived for the cooking of the dinner. They had planned to go to the grocery together and buy the eggs, potatoes, butter, Wesson oil and lemon the first thing, but it looked so much like rain that many of the children suggested that they go to the garden first. They gathered the vegetables and took them to the school room. Never was any harvest more proudly borne. After depositing the vegetables they went to a nearby grocery and bought the other articles as they had planned.

The school room soon became a very busy place. Some children skinned the onions and washed them, others prepared the greens, others made the mayonnaise, others pared the potatoes, others washed and chipped the radishes, others washed and cut the lettuce, others brought the dishes and silver from the cafeteria and laid the tables, others brought the milk, corn sticks and chocolate pudding from the cafeteria (there was no way to bake in the kindergarten so the corn sticks and pudding were prepared in the cafeteria). Everyone saw to it that the pots on the electric plates were kept boiling.

At last they were ready to serve. Everyone found his place and the serving committee brought the plates. Never did a plate look so pretty, and never did food taste so good as this. Children who had never eaten some of these foods ate them and liked them. Nearly every plate was "clean" that day. The children went away happy and satisfied.

Now let us analyze this experience and classify some of the things which were happening that would contribute to the health education of the children.

What were some of the educational outcomes?

The children developed attitudes toward the right type of foods, even developed tastes for foods they had never eaten. They had a changed attitude toward work and rest. They enjoyed working in the sunshine and air. They

learned to maintain self-control when hurt.

The children began to form habits of eating right foods, of cleanliness of food, washing hands before handling food and before eating, eating slowly, chewing food well, taking small bites and mouthfuls, of cooperating and sharing, of putting on and removing wraps, wearing rubbers at appropriate times, removing rubbers when indoors, cleaning shoes before going indoors, of obeying signals, of looking both ways before crossing street, of walking on left when there is no side walk.

The children learned what foods were good for them, that food should be kept clean, that hands should be kept clean, that hands should be washed before handling food, that sunshine and fresh air are good for people, to select wraps according to need, to cross a street safely, that cuts should be cleaned and disinfected.

What were the health outcomes?

The children worked in sunshine and air at an occupation which used the big muscles of the body, thus encouraging physical growth.

The healthful mental and emotional growth of the children was shown by persisting in work until the task was successfully finished, by doing work promptly, by enjoying work, by meeting disappointments bravely and by showing a keen active interest and curiosity concerning things about them.

The social health was developed through obeying the rules of the group, awaiting one's turn, willingness to take part in group activities, settling of difficulties without appealing to teacher, refraining from interrupting others needlessly, keeping hands off other persons, refraining from quarreling, obeying and respecting those in authority.

Some of the other activities which extended over a long period of time were the grocery store; the dolls' house; the hen and chickens; the making of aprons; caring for the aquarium and animals in

it; serving mid-morning lunch; building with the blocks; and making, planting, and caring for the window boxes.

Each unit developed many of the same outcomes as described in the unit about the garden but at the same time each offered opportunities for the introduction of other outcomes. Time will not permit a description and analysis of another unit of work as a whole but I would like to take parts of units which illustrate the development of outcome that have not been described.

Someone gave the children a baby alligator for their aquarium. They tried to find just the food for him but he ate very little. One afternoon after the children had gone home the teacher saw two flies so she partially killed them and dropped them into the water. When the alligator saw them wiggle he snapped them up and swam around looking for more.

The next morning she told the children about this. One of them said, "How did you get the flies in the water?"

"I put them in with my hands."

"Then you had to wash your hands, didn't you?"

"Yes, for there is nothing so dirty as a fly. We must always remember to wash our hands after we handle flies."

"My cook kills flies and does not wash her hands. She just goes on cooking," said one of the girls.

"She should wash her hands after handling flies," said the teacher.

"My daddy had a birthday," said one of the boys. "Mother fixed candles on a cake for him. While we were eating a fly flew through the candles and singed his wings so he could not fly. He fell into my mother's plate and she had to get another plate. She threw away all that food, too."

"Mother did exactly right," said the teacher. "When flies get on our food we should not eat it because it often makes us sick."

"You know last summer, I could

hardly rest at school because the flies bothered me. There are not many flies now but there will be lots of them in the summer," said another boy. This led to the discussion of swatting the first flies and keeping houses screened.

One of the children related this to her parents and her father who was a physician felt that she had gained knowledge and attitudes towards flies that would always be helpful to her.

The children made swatters and killed many flies for the alligator but they seldom forgot to wash their hands. The thing that puzzled them was that flies were good for the alligator and bad for them.

The children had an opportunity to learn about the control of infection in their unit of work about the hen and chickens which was being carried on at the same time as the unit about the garden.

The children had a hen and nineteen chickens. One of them got sick. A child suggested that he should be taken out of the coop before he made the others sick. He was taken to the school room but nothing could be done to hush his cheeps. One of the children said, "Let us take him back to his mother. My mother does not send me away when I am sick." "Mine does not either," said another. Several said, "No, they will all get sick." The teacher explained how we had to stay at home when we had colds so the other children would not take a cold and how we should never go where we knew people were sick and where we saw signs on the house.

Another morning several other chickens were sick and one was running from chick to chick and cheeping to be hovered. As he poked his head about one of the children cried, "Take him out quick, he is kissing all the other chickens and they will be sick, too."

The children learned some valuable lessons in regard to sleep in connection with the doll's house.

Just after the Christmas holidays, many dolls came to visit. They were always put to bed after their dinner. One morning they had many visiting dolls so there were not enough beds. During conference one of the boys said that more beds were needed. Three of the boys offered to make a bed. They made one from a box. When it was finished they brought it for the group to see. While looking at it one child said, "Four dolls can sleep in that big bed, two at the head and two at the foot." "No, they couldn't because their feet would be in each others faces," objected another child. "Four dolls should not sleep in the same bed, anyway," said another.

The children began to tell how they slept at home. When the discussion was over the teacher showed a picture of a child asleep in his own bed and in his own room. The window was open and the light was out. As she placed it on the bulletin board, she said, "This is the way I like to sleep."

Besides these there were activities which lasted from a few weeks to a few days. These also held valuable teaching opportunities.

One day William Francis brought his rabbit to school. A cage was quickly made from a box and chicken wire. The children wanted to feed him. They found some corn which they had brought from the garden for Hallowe'en decoration. It proved too hard for the rabbit. The next day they brought lettuce and carrots. As they watched the rabbit eat the carrot the children told how they liked carrots. The teacher said, "I like carrots too. They are so good for us." Agnes, a four-year-old, took carrots at lunch. Her mother was amazed, for Agnes had only eaten carrots when mashed in other vegetables, but she said nothing. As Agnes minced the carrots she said, "I am going to eat carrots. William Francis' rabbit likes them. They are good for us."

Among the other activities which extended over a short period were those

suggested by excursions and those centered about the holidays—Hallowe'en, Christmas, Valentine and Easter.

What were the means of measuring these results of health education?

The results in the kindergarten were measured by recording activities, what the children said and did, what the parents said and by keeping periodic graphs of certain activities.

The summary of these records showed that all children were improved in physical condition. It also showed that through these activities attitudes, habits and knowledge were developed in regard to nutrition, sleep and rest, use of fresh air and sunshine, elimination of waste, use of clothing, control of infection, care of feet, teeth and mouth, nose and throat, voice, ears, and eyes.

It showed, as we saw from the analysis made, the development of desirable traits of mental, emotional and social health which insured a healthy personality.

This study convinced us that a program of health education should be begun early in life if we expect the practice of health habits to be as natural and matter-of-fact a part of daily duties as lacing shoes. As in other phases of education, we must consider the stage of the child and catch and interpret those phases of health which are suitable to his development and which meet a felt need. If this is done we need not fear making the children self-centered, self-conscious, and morbidly introspective.

The study proved to everyone connected with it that if an opportunity is given the children and the teacher to work out activities comparable to those in life and if the teacher has developed an awareness of the physical, mental, emotional and social needs of her children there need be no formal teaching of health in the early grades, for activities offer more and better opportunities in the right setting than can be brought in any other form.

Need Children Be Awkward?

MILTON B. JENSEN

Professor of Psychology and Education, State Teachers College, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan

"MY wanna dance! My wanna dance!" is the ever-present cry of baby at the house where I have been visiting of late. Baby, Mary Francis by name, is thirty months old—large, robust, talkative and extremely fond of the radio. She gets up to its clamour, puts on her clothes—she adjusts them all, with the exception of tying her shoes—and is content to have it silent only when the *Sandman* makes his scheduled appearance. As she skips she sings, keeping time with her arms—totally unconscious of the grace and beauty of movement she is building for the future. She likes to carry the dishes from the table and it seems to me, though I have few data on the matter, that she makes fewer slips when her movements are in time with some lilting tune than when there is no music. "Round the Corner," so popular in some sections at present, and "Give Yourself a Pat on the Back," are worn threadbare, so far as my ears are concerned, but do not seem to tire her baby voice as it slurs over the *t*'s and dodges the *d*'s. As she picks up a dish there is a long graceful sweep of the arm and another transfers it to the sink where the dirty dishes are put—provided the radio is playing the type of music suited to such movements. If there is no music her movements are shorter, tenser and more choppy. She tries harder and, sometimes, with disconcerting results. The energy which seems so well distributed when there is music, without it is concentrated in the baby arms intent on doing a perfect job. The baby eyes are glued on the dish. The admonition to care is an ever-present ogre and Mary Francis is a slave to the fears that beset most of us whenever there is something of an exacting nature to be done. She has a pure case

of what the golfer calls "Nerves."

Mary Francis is only one of the many, many children learning the rhythmic of movement through the millions of radios in the world today. The misfortune of it all is that we have not yet awakened to the possibilities in this field. Thousands on thousands of physical movements of all degrees of complexity are involved in man's relation to his environment. All of these are more effective, more accurate and less tiring if timed properly and if performed as a rhythmic function of the human body. The perfect stroke in golf, tennis and baseball, the effective throw in basketball, the accurate movement of the surgeon's knife or of the seamstress' needle—all are dependent upon a rhythmic quality lacking in the performance of a large percentage of people. That everyone could attain the perfection of movement of a skilled surgeon or of a ballet dancer is doubtful in the extreme. That the movements of most of us could be made more effective and graceful is beyond question. Directors in all lines of athletics have learned the value of rhythmic of movement and the handicaps due to poor coordination. Mary Francis is stumbling into a process of education from which she will "clip coupons" as long as she lives.

A few days ago she began a sort of *skip, skip, kick* procedure. Where she learned it I have no idea, but the radio gave her stimuli to try and to persist. At first she tried it on the kitchen floor. This went well for the skips but the kick landed her on her back. Not to be defeated she next tried it on the bed. Here she fell, too, but without painful results, so that after three or four days she was ready for the floor once more. This time she did not fall, and now she skips and

kicks everywhere, bringing her arms high above her head as a climax to each complete glide.

Mary Francis, at thirty months, is more graceful and more capable with respect to many bodily movements than are a large percentage of high school and college girls. A recent study at Michigan Central State Teachers' College showed a large per cent of women almost totally unable to perform simple exercises calling for coordination and rhythmic control. Most people would merely say that these girls were awkward and let it go at that. Our work with these girls shows that practically all of them can make tremendous improvement with the proper type of instruction.

Awkwardness, as it is commonly called, has, aside from a lack of practice from which girls suffer more than do boys, at least two main causes among children of normal development: 1. cumbersome physical structure, often accompanied by a sluggishness of nervous response, and 2. hysteria, or simple self-consciousness. Proper training can do much to overcome both of these and the earlier it is given the better. Parents have too long taken a lack of skill of movement in their children as a matter of course. It is too bad if the child is awkward, but—and the matter is dismissed with a shrug, largely because parents have not known what to do. Thus a lack of rhythmic movement frequently becomes a habit and many girls and boys enter college without ever having learned to do things rhythmically, gracefully and easily.

Coordination of movement is not acquired by chance. It has to be taught (whether the child learns by himself or has others to help him) patiently, laboriously and, sometimes, painfully. The place to begin is at a very early age—as soon as it seems possible to get satisfactory responses. Our nursery schools and kindergartens are demonstrating the correct procedures, but they get only a small percentage of the children and often they

do not get them early enough. Parents must bear the brunt of starting the child rhythmically along the pathway of life. He must learn to trip and skip and sing and to think of things other than himself. Where his training is delayed it is extremely difficult, especially with the sensitive child, to draw him out of himself. The radio is one of the most valuable teachers we have ever had. Although its programs are more suited to adult tastes than to those of the child, this could be remedied to a considerable extent. Children's hours, despite their atrocities, have been of inestimable value. Broadcasting companies have shown a willingness to cooperate and experiment and may be expected to continue to do so. They might begin by trying out some of the following suggestions:

1. Have shorter and more frequent periods for children. Ten or fifteen minutes is as long as the attention of young children can be held with profit.
2. Into each of these periods put some music adapted to children's games and dances. These should be simple, "catchy" melodies.
3. Broadcast instructions for simple children's games and dances to accompany the music and adapted to the floor-space limits of the average home.
4. Insert occasional numbers for children at other times than during their regular programs. They are always well received by the children, and usually by adults.

Only parents of wealth and leisure can afford the niceties of dancing lessons and these do not come early enough in the life of the child. I have before me constantly examples of boys and girls grown to manhood and womanhood encumbered with fears wherever muscular performance involving marked coordination is concerned. I see the tremendous satisfactions they get from learning that they can do certain things they hitherto thought impos-

sible. I should like them to get those satisfactions early in life and never to suffer the fears of the sensitive child untrained in the arts of rhythmic action.

Parents looking to the future of their children cannot wait on changes in radio programs. With broadcasting as it is there is a tremendous amount that can be done. At the end of this article is given a list of books containing games and dances suited to the instructional needs of young children. Unfortunately, most of these call for music of their own. They are full of suggestions, however, and a little study will give the thoughtful parent many workable ideas. All parents may profit by a visit to a good kindergarten or nursery school. It should be remembered that the games and dances must be simple. What seems easy to the adult is usually very difficult for a young child. Spontaneity and pleasure must be integral parts of the procedure. Parent and child should play and dance together, and with mutual profit, where it is possible. An older child is often an excellent teacher for one younger. Poor performance should never be upbraided. It is one of the normal expectancies of all new undertakings, and should be treated as such. Scolding is apt to cause a sense of failure, of inadequacy in life—the most distressing of all human ailments. All instruction should begin with very simple movements and proceed from these to those more complex. The lover of children, and most parents are in this class, gets as much thrill from baby's first *pat-a-cake* as from the intricate performance of a tap dancer. A few simple things baby may do when the broadcasting is appropriate are:

1. clasp the hands
2. stamp the feet
3. raise and lower the arms, together and alternately
4. march—and as soon as the child is old enough he should learn to march with a book on his head
5. skip—there are innumerable variations of this procedure, all of which are good

6. arm movements to accompany marching and skipping.

It has been demonstrated over and over again that there is no more valuable way of building a healthy mind than through spontaneous, rhythmic physical accomplishment. Pride in self—not arrogance or conceit—is the essence of a satisfactory life. Baby is soon old enough to learn the rhythmic of bodily movement, and even though this type of training may have been neglected through early life—well—would you go without food all day just because you got up too late for breakfast?

Books on Children's Games and Dances (From "Unified Kindergarten and First-Grade Teaching," by Parker, S. C. and Temple, Alice, Ginn and Co., New York, 1925.)

- Bancroft, J. H. Games for the Playground, Home, School and Gymnasium, Macmillan Co., Chicago.
- Brown, F. W. and Boyd, N. L. Old English and American Singing Games, Saul Brothers, Chicago.
- Burchenal, E. Folk Dances and Singing Games, G. Schirmer, New York.
- Crawford, C. Dramatic Games and Dances for little Children, A. S. Barnes and Co., New York.
- Crawford, C. Folk Dances and Games, A. S. Barnes and Co., New York.
- Crawford, C. and Fogg, E. R. The Rhythms of Childhood, A. S. Barnes and Co., New York.
- Forbush, W. B. Manual of Play, George W. Jacobs and Co., Philadelphia.
- Hinman, M. W. Gymnastic and Folk Dancing, Vol. III, A. S. Barnes and Co., New York.
- Hofer, M. R. Music for the Child World, Vol. III, Clayton F. Summy Co., Chicago.
- Hofer, M. R. Popular Folk Games and Dances, A. Flanagan and Co., Chicago.
- Hyde, H. Rhythms for the Kindergarten, Clayton F. Summy Co., Chicago.
- Smith, G. In Happy Motion, Clayton F. Summy Co., Chicago.

Kindergarten Health Supervision in Pennsylvania

MARY RIGGS NOBLE, M. D.

Chief, Preschool Division, Special Agent, Federal Children's Bureau,
State Department, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

KINDERGARTEN Health Supervision in Pennsylvania is a new venture begun in the autumn of 1929. The work was in reality an activity picked out for special effort from our long-standing program whereby the kindergarten groups, out of the whole preschool army, could be given the kind of physical examinations which we wish all the little ones from two to six years of age could have. Our experience shows that preschool children are not frequenters of Child Health Centers. Babies have absorbed the attention at the Centers and the older child has been lost in the shuffle until it has been a problem how to find and give him the care he needs.

Happily now the preschool group is splitting up into sections. The six-year-olds are being successfully mobilized for examination in the Summer Round-Ups, in the Parent-Teacher Association "campaigns,"— a fine undertaking as long as the preceding years have not dealt fairly with these prospective school entrants. For this same age group for several years the Pennsylvania Department of Health has sent traveling health units into the rural parts of the state for the benefit of the two to six-year-olds, specially inviting them, although not excluding infants.

In the new kindergarten scheme, dealing exclusively with the 4- and 5-year-olds, the plan for insuring defect correction was an important part of the work, reliance not being placed on informing the parent of child's needs by merely sending a card to the mother. Our examinations were made with the mother present and the child completely undressed. The talk with the parent with

the little one as the text, is regarded by us as quite as valuable as the actual physical check-up for the purpose of stimulating the desire to set about the correction of defects and for instruction in the matter of health habits, where daily faulty care is brought to light in conversation.

The children examined are referred to their respective family physicians when medical advice or treatment is called for, as, of course, it is not our province to trespass upon the territory of the private practitioner.

To bring additional pressure to bear for the securing of defect correction, lists of children referred for treatment are returned to the supervising principals and to the school nurses concerned, so that home calls may be made. Furthermore each doctor receives a letter from the Harrisburg office and a list of the children whose mothers name him or her as their doctor. These lists state the chief findings and inform the doctor that the parents were urged to consult him promptly.

The kindergarten teachers as also the principals and superintendents have been most coöperative, even at the cost of much extra labor, and disturbance to the school routine.

The results of this work reinforce us strongly in our ideas of the needs of children of this age. A corroborative mass of facts is also brought to light by the motor health units as they tour through the rural areas in the summer. We are not guessing that defects are prevalent.

(Continued on page 102)

Preliminary Announcement

(June 11, 1931)

CONFERENCE OF

National Association for Nursery Education NOVEMBER 12, 13 AND 14, 1931

Headquarters: Mitten Hall,
Temple University,
Broad and Berks Sts.,
Philadelphia, Pa.

The Fourth National Conference on Nursery Education is planned for those who are engaged in the education or guidance of children of preschool age.

The meetings will be open to all members of the Association. The program is arranged to provide an opportunity for discussion of issues of immediate concern to those who are actively working with young children. To the discussion groups, only members of the Association will be admitted. There will be several general meetings to which the public will be invited.

Membership in this Organization is as follows:

Those persons who are educationally trained for work in the field of nursery education, or who are professionally engaged in this field shall be eligible for active membership. Parents, and others interested non-professionally in nursery education, shall be eligible for associate membership.

Dues: Active Members \$2.00 a year
Associate Members 1.00 a year

If you are interested, send your qualifications for membership with application to Christine Heinig, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City.

Copies of the first two publications of this Association are available from the Secretary, Mrs. Alfred Alschuler, 795 Lincoln Avenue, Winnetka, Illinois, as follows:

Minimum Essentials of a Nursery School \$2.00
Proceedings of Chicago Conference50

TENTATIVE PROGRAM

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 12

9:00-11:00 A. M.—Registration.
11:00-11:30 A. M.—“Conference Issues.”
11:30-12:00 A. M.—“Implications of the White House Conference Report on the Preschool Child.”
12:30 P. M.—Luncheon at Temple University.
2:00-5:00 P. M.—Discussion Groups.
8:00 P. M.—The Nursery School in Action (Illustrated with motion pictures).

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 13

9:00-1:00 P. M.—Registration.
9:00-12:00 Noon—Exhibits of Nursery School Materials.
9:00-12:00 Noon—Observation trips to Philadelphia nursery schools.
2:00-5:00 P. M.—Discussion Groups.
7:00 P. M.—Conference Dinner and Address.

SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 14

9:00-10:00 A. M.—Business Meeting.
10:15-12:00 Noon—Summaries of Group Discussion.
General Summary of Conference.

Adjournment

Topics for discussion will include: Nutrition and Health; Preparation of Nursery School Teachers; Parent Education and the Nursery School; Play Activities; Nursery School Procedures; Behavior Problems in the Nursery School; Experiments in Nursery School Programs; Nursery School Procedures; Techniques of Teaching in Music and Story Periods; Minimal Essentials of Nursery Schools; Psychological Measurements for Preschool Children.

General Information

Hotel Headquarters: The Bellevue-Stratford, Broad and Walnut Streets.

Room Tariff: Rooms without bath—Single room, \$2.25 to \$3.75; Rooms with bath—Single room (outside), \$3.00 to \$4.50; Single room and bath with outlook, \$5.25 to

\$6.75; Double room and bath with outlook, \$6.75 to \$8.25; Room with twin beds and bath (open court), \$6.00 to \$6.75; Large double room with twin beds and bath, \$7.50 to \$9.75.

Railroad Rates: Arrangements are being made to secure reduced rates of fare and one half for round trip tickets. Definite specifications will be given in the final program.

The Miniature Golf Course

GERTRUDE M. TITUS

Classroom Teacher, Fond du Lac, Wisconsin

IT was the second day of school, and the children of 1A and 2B grades were illustrating their vacation experiences with drawings. When the pictures were held up for inspection, it was found that about fifty per cent had drawn some part of a miniature golf course. This showed that interest was very keen in this sport and the conversations which followed disclosed an amazing amount of information on the subject.

Here, then, was a project already formed in the pupils' thinking, and an interest which needed no prodding. While preparations for a tiny course in the sand box were being made, the principal happened in and suggested that we use the floor of a vacant room for the purpose. This delighted the children and plans were at once drawn for a golf course. The best plan was chosen and a much larger one drawn from it. Incidentally this also underwent many changes before the course was completed.

Our next step was to adjourn to the vacant room to lay out the first green, which in this case was very much the color of a brown hardwood floor. I find that to maintain interest on the part of little children immediate results must be seen, so on the first day they played one-hole golf.

The form of the greens drawn on the floor was outlined with kindergarten blocks and when that supply became exhausted wood piles were drawn upon for the balance. A language period was used for a discussion of ways and means of providing tees and holes. The final agreement was to use erasers for tees, and circles of one-inch kindergarten blocks for holes, leaving one side open to receive the ball.

The course was "lighted" with a string of discarded Christmas tree lights—a

child's suggestion. After several rather unsuccessful attempts to build a ticket-office of boxes, the children abandoned the idea and used a portable blackboard placed behind a small table. The blackboard was swung into a horizontal position for the roof. The signs for the ticket-office, printed by the children, read:

TEENIE WEENIE GOLF COURSE

Open Evenings 5c

The signs for each of the nine greens were printed on cards as:

NUMBER 7

Par 3

These were thumb-tacked to a lath which was nailed to a block of wood, to hold it upright.

The hazards were made of articles which we had on hand in the school or which were brought by the children from home. Four arches built of kindergarten blocks were used for Number 1; three oatmeal boxes filled with sand were used as posts on Number 2; cardboard boxes and covers made bridges; other hazards were made of sets of ten-pins, pots of flowers, a wooden box used as a bounding board, and round box "tunnels."

There seemed to be plenty of balls, a half dozen real putters, and some cleverly improvised ones. One lad seemed to have a very good time using, quite effectively, a small hammer. Each pupil made and marked his own score card which called for the use of rulers and numbering. Snapshots of the golf course, both with and without the players, mounted and labeled, motivated good language and reading exercises. A fine social attitude was developed by inviting other grades to use the course, loaning the balls and putters, and explaining the game.

Government Service for Teachers

The Children's Bureau in its endeavors to attain what we like to feel is a particular American ideal, namely that "The Child Shall Be First"—the Children's Bureau embodies the belief that the protection of childhood is a proper function of government, and this fact lends added authority to its studies, which cover not only matters of child health and training, but such problems as juvenile delinquency, dependency, and neglect, child labor, legislation affecting children in the various States, and all the other problems of childhood.

The results of these investigations are made available to the public in the form of printed reports. Over 200 publications have been issued by the Bureau since it was created in 1912. They range in character from popular pamphlets such as "Infant Care," "The Child from One to Six," "Child Management," and a number of leaflets in even more popular form, all destined to place the best available information on child care and training within the reach of every parent, to various technical studies, intended for teachers, professional child welfare workers and other experts in the field of child care. They frequently present the results of studies made in response to requests for an impartial survey of conditions affecting children in a given State or community. A list of the Bureau's publications is sent free to anyone requesting it, and single copies of the publications are also distributed free of charge.

Another method of making known the results of its research and of educating the public in child care is through the medium of exhibits: Posters, panels, models, slide films, motion pictures and similar devices in the field of visual education, ranging from a scientific presentation of the appearance of the bones in various stages of rickets to a pictorial presentation of the story of the Three Bears designed to interest children in the formation of good health habits. This exhibit material, a list of which is available for distribution, may be borrowed free of charge by any responsible person anywhere in the United States who will agree to pay transportation charges both ways and to return the material to the Bureau in good condition.

In short, the Children's Bureau seeks to collect the greatest number of helpful facts about child life among all our people, and

through analysis, interpretation, and distribution of these facts to the greatest number of people, to aid in making the United States the safest and happiest place for children.

KATHERINE LENROOT.

U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR WASHINGTON

In 1838 Henry Barnard journeyed from New England to Washington, D. C., for school statistics and found none. For 30 years he led the movement for a Federal fact-finding agency which was eventually established as the Office of Education.

In 1931 it is not necessary to travel to Washington, D. C., for school statistics. If they are not in the local library they can be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents; Statistics on kindergartens and college economics, adult education, health education, facts about curriculum innovations, all kinds of education; comparisons of state achievement; comparisons of costs; directories of school officials, educational research, and accredited institutions. The Federal Office of Education is, indeed, the national clearing house of educational information.

A useful reference to its store of information is the new 56 page price list, "Government Publications on EDUCATION," which the Office of Education, Department of the Interior, will send free to any applicant. This catalog classifies by subjects all publications available from the Office of Education and also those pertaining to education prepared by other U. S. Government departments.

To enable a teacher, supervisor or school official to keep abreast of the new facts and statistics hot off the adding machine and the typewriter, as it were, the Office of Education maintains the monthly journal *SCHOOL LIFE*. Teachers and supervisors in search of free or low cost classroom aids will find *SCHOOL LIFE*'S regular department of "New Government Publications Useful to Teachers" invaluable. A specimen copy of *SCHOOL LIFE* will be sent free for inspection. Address your request to Wm. John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, Department of the Interior.

WILLIAM D. BONTWELL.

To be continued with reports from other departments.

NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS

MARY E. LEEPER

AUSTRALIA

THE latest annual report of the Carlton Free Kindergarten Association, Carlton, Victoria, is most interesting. Pictures always challenge our attention. Scattered through this report we find pictures of children busy with hammers and saws. Others are building with large blocks. Two children are busy in the garden. One picture shows the children during the self-service lunch period. In the last picture they are resting upon the stretchers made by their fathers. It is evident from the pictures and from the entire report that the curriculum followed in this school strives to be in accordance with the best in modern educational practices.

EGYPT

A glimpse of the educational opportunities for young children in Egypt.

In the schools established and financially aided by the government the kindergarten and primary schools are called infant schools. The training is the usual primary program: the three "R's" some handwork, military drills, and gymnastics. College students in Egypt often memorize whole books before an examination and the little children also learn by constant drill and repetition. The rod is not spared, and the small pupils emerge letter perfect, but without an understanding of the content.

Under the American Mission there are eighteen kindergartens. At least twenty per cent of these children attend without the payment of a fee. A program of games, songs, stories, handwork, and excursions is developed. Some reading is

given to appease the demand of the parents who wish to know: "Why hasn't George night work?" "When will Aziza buy her books?" "Shall I get a tutor for Marie? She is not learning anything." The Tanta Kindergarten Training School, established in 1928, trains native girls to teach in these schools.

As there has been no literature for the Egyptian children, forty-five American stories have been translated into the Arabic. Permission has been secured to publish these stories, a book of Bible stories, and a series of Talks to Mothers.—(From the report of the Committee on Foreign Correspondence.)

HAWAII

Our own A. C. E. Branch in Hawaii has a most attractive calendar for 1930-1931.

Miss Frances Lawrence, in her report, gives a real news item:

"The outstanding event in the primary educational field of Hawaii during 1930 was the publishing of an Activity Program for the primary grades including the kindergarten. A committee appointed by the research bureau of the Department of Public Instruction guided the work, but every primary teacher had a part in its preparation. As a first attempt it marks a very important step in the progress of educational methods in the elementary schools of Hawaii. In this program the child is recognized as an individual and subject matter becomes a means to an end, not an end in itself. This is a distinct turning point in practical education."

BOOK REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

Teaching Children to Draw.—Anyone who has visited the classes under Miss Todd's direction at the University of Chicago Elementary School is impressed with the freedom and ease with which the children express their ideas in drawing. Such a person will welcome Miss Todd's monograph on "Drawing in the Elementary Schools," which has recently been published.*

The monograph is worthy of notice from both the specialist and the grade teacher; the specialist, because it presents a new device for teacher drawing, the grade teacher because the method suggested is simple, available and includes practical help from an experienced person.

The book with discussion, illustrations and results is only sixty pages long. In it Miss Todd presents a unique method of developing a graphic vocabulary. Type forms have been selected of people, animals, objects and plants and compiled into a systematic course. These drawings are on cards which can be given out to the children so that each may proceed at his own rate of speed. Also various positions of each type of form are included to help the child see how he may adapt the material to his own use.

The most noteworthy section of the monograph to me is that on results. Many illustrations are included, one from each child, in fact, from the second to the seventh grade. To aid in understanding of unusual children the work of two gifted children is presented with a discussion of their development from the second grade thru junior high school. The reader is impressed in all of these plates with the individuality and spontaneity of these child-like drawings.

There has been much confusion lately concerning children's creative work. One hears many such questions as, "Should children draw only what they wish?" or "Should chil-

dren be taught how to draw?" In the hands of a person less sensitive to children's habits of work or less encouraging to the child's own ideas, the graded series given in the monograph might degenerate into merely a course to be gone through. If, however, it is used to give the child an adequate tool for portraying his own feelings, as is expressly the intent of the method outlined, then Miss Todd's monograph is one answer to this problem of securing both good drawing and good creative expression.

HAZEL JEAN PLYMPTON,
*State Teachers' College,
Bellingham, Washington.*

Minnesota tells us how to study children.—Texts for courses in experimental psychology have been rather generously supplied to us. They have, in the main, contained descriptions of such experiments on sensory processes, motor tasks, individual differences, and learning as could be conducted in the laboratory with adult subjects within the period of an hour or two. The Goodenough and Anderson volume* is unique in many ways among the texts labelled experimental. The experiments these authors present are designed to be carried out on young subjects. The exercises usually involve the collection of data on a considerable number of cases. The apparatus required is seldom more elaborate than can be made at home or purchased at a ten-cent store. The projects furnish experience with an unusually wide range of processes and issues as well as a very respectable training in statistics.

The text, however, is not merely a book of rather traditional exercises. It is divided into three sections, the first containing an historical resumé of the work in child study, a discussion of fundamental principles of development, and a brief survey of modern

*Jessie Todd. *Drawing in the Elementary School.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. 1931. Pp. 60. \$0.75.

*Florence Goodenough and John E. Anderson, *Experimental Child Study.* New York: The Century Co. 1931. Pp. xiii + 546.

methods of child study. Part II provides rather detailed directions for seventy experiments. While some of these have never been performed and hence should be a treasure hoard for graduate students in search of thesis problems, most of the projects involve techniques and methods employed by the workers at the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of Minnesota. In fact, the limited use made of the output of other institutions is conspicuous. The experiments range from those intended to give training in the techniques of measuring sitting and standing height, sensory discrimination, and speed in motor performance up through those concerned with the measurement of vocabulary, ability to solve problems, musical ability, introversion and extroversion, distribution of the teacher's time among his pupils, and socioeconomic status.

A more longitudinal approach is made in the last major section of the opus. This includes a superior exposition of the methods of collecting data—methods such as the questionnaire, rating scale, test, as well as varieties of observation procedures.

An extensive bibliography, glossary of technical terms, list of statistical formulae, and subject and author index testify to the excellent cataloguing that has been done.

A vast amount of well organized, pertinent, and original material has been compressed into the volume. Such contentfulness is rarely found. The statistical emphasis is marked. Indeed, the work might well be viewed as one on applied statistics as well as one on experimental procedure. The statistical accent is so strong, in the middle section at least, that such questions as the practical complications of data gathering and the validity of the returns occasionally seem to fall short of their due share of consideration. The student, for example, in the exercises dealing with sleep is given no experience in the observation of the sleep behavior of children. He is directed rather to collect the reports of parents who presumably have kept records for a week. Then, with little comment as to the probable limitations of these records the authors plunge into a discussion of certain problems in the statistical juggling of the returns. In the experiment concerned with the food likes and dislikes of children the student is given practically no guidance with respect to the prob-

lem of the food needs of the young, although he is called upon to make judgments upon this issue.

Just how successfully, on the other hand, the text can be made to function as one in applied statistics in the case of small classes or of communities in which a supply of young subjects is not readily available is a question. The gradual and systematic introduction of the student to statistical concepts through the analysis of his own data has apparently been a consideration that has weighed heavily in determining the order in which the exercises are presented. Since the projects are very time-consuming, it is unlikely the student will be able to carry through more than a few during the course of a semester and hence improbable that he will be exposed in the fashion the authors contemplate to their program of instruction in statistics. While it is true that those sections of the work concerned with statistics may be gathered together and discussed independently of their context, much will doubtless be lost through this divorce.

Generalizations in the text have, in the main, been carefully qualified and many issues upon which there has been a tendency to over-generalize have received a masterly exposition. Occasionally, however, statements do occur which seem to have a dangerous sweep. To illustrate, we find on page 21 the comment, "Changes in adult behavior (until senescence) are brought about only as a result of experience," and on page 27 the following: "Parallel with the process of differentiation which is the result of development, there is going on a process of integration or recombination of responses which is the result of experience."

That one should be able to find statements over which he might choose to argue is to be expected and should not be taken seriously. The volume is undoubtedly one of the most outstanding contributions that have been made to the field of child study in recent times.

HELEN L. KOCH,

The University of Chicago.

The what, how and why of social science.—

For a long time the teachers of the primary grades have felt the need of more practical assistance to supplement the modern theories of teaching the social studies. Especially has

the primary teacher needed specific aids for the unifying of the social studies with the other subjects of the school program so that for the younger children there may be more continuity in the meanings attached to the school experiences into which the school curriculum now leads.

In *The Social Studies in the Primary Grades** the primary teacher will find an excellent basic program mapped out for her use, a program that is based upon standards of accuracy in the sources and data given to primary children, upon an organization which conforms to the best established practices of today, a discrimination in the selection of units which touch those vital experiences in life necessary to the building up of the child background, and at all times an adherence to the objectives which have to do with the self-realization of the individual and his relationship with the group. Too much cannot be said in recognition of the fact that the material has been successfully tried out by many teachers. It is very evident that the units must have been evolved after such careful experimentation. For this reason, the book should not only prove an aid to primary teachers, but it should find a prominent place in the making of the curriculum in social studies for the primary grades.

As the author states in the preface, the book contains (1) descriptions of the ways

in which the units have been worked out, (2) sample lessons, (3) specimens of children's work, (4) books for the teacher in connection with each unit, (5) books for children, and (6) sources of all kinds of illustrative materials.

The primary purpose of the author is to present "the principles, content, and techniques of teaching the social studies." After defining a unit of activity, the book proceeds to develop the steps in teaching each unit according to an easily understood plan of organization. This plan states the justification of the unit as a part of the primary curriculum, the aims and grade placement, the suggested forms of approach, the general procedure for teaching, the subject matter to be used by the teacher, the outcome in terms of social understandings and experiences, and the information which should be acquired by the pupils. No attempt has been made to cover the whole range of knowledge, skills, abilities, tastes, attitudes, and ideals which the unit, when well-taught, should develop. The book is never didactic in tone. It gives a wealth of ideas both to the experienced and the inexperienced teacher, but like all books which have the many interests of children in mind, it leaves a feeling that none of the described units are considered by the author to be complete in possibilities for the teacher of perspective and initiative.

FRANCES R. DEARBORN,
The Johns Hopkins University.

*Grace E. Storm. *The Social Studies in the Primary Grades*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan. 1931. Pp. XI + 596.



KINDERGARTEN HEALTH SUPERVISION IN PENNSYLVANIA

(Continued from page 95)

Here are the mounting proofs and the vast number of corrections needed justify us in placing increasing emphasis on the necessity of stirring the unsuspecting and dilatory parents to action.

So far, the kindergarten examinations have been finished in six counties and 700 children have been examined. The usual findings prevail but one or two startling facts are noted as our eyes scan the tables of summaries. For example over 14% of the children had hearts that

deviated in varying degrees from the "normal,"—"cardiac defects." Very few of these were serious, happily, but no such child should go neglected on the ground that it may "outgrow it." Mere lapse of time does not assure disappearance of any danger signal. The scientific world and the general public today are interested in the increasing number of deaths from "heart troubles." Perhaps a little care in childhood might reduce the loss of life in the middle decades from this cause.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

SCHOOL EXECUTIVES MAGAZINE in its July issue continues its discussion of Teachers and Marriage with an article by Ida E. Housman of the Demarest High School, Hoboken, N. J. This is a topic which is particularly timely since the unemployment situation has brought it to the front in many cities. Those school executives where married teachers have not been employed are congratulating themselves on their situation. Other cities having many married women in their schools find it a present issue. This article discusses first the attitude of the public quoting from a referendum conducted by the Board of Education of the District of Columbia in 1927. Returns came in from seventy organizations, of these, fifty-seven favored married women as teachers, seven were opposed and six were noncommittal. Quoting from an editorial in the *Washington Times*, the article says "There are endless arguments on both sides, yet the great majority of them are wholly extraneous to the important question, Are married women teachers as efficient as single ones? Are they as useful and beneficial to the schools and pupils?" The attitude of the School Board is the next topic, and here, quoting from a Research Bulletin of the N. E. A. we find that about sixty per cent of cities over 2,500 in population do not employ married women as new teachers. Relative Efficiency is next discussed. The author says, "Scientific data on this subject is limited. In Detroit, Moehlman concluded from a study of principals' ratings that married women teachers ranked a little higher in professional ability." A questionnaire to school superintendents in 1926 brought the following responses—954 replies, of which 63 per cent said married women with equal training and experience were as efficient as unmarried; 18 per cent said they were not; 15 per cent gave conditional answers; and 4 per cent said they were more efficient. Other topics in the article are Legal Status; Marriage Restrictions in Contracts; Contract

Statements; Legal Aspects of Dismissal; Cases of Dismissal; The Oregon Case; Dismissal Under Tenure; and The Attitude in England and France. We will quote a final conclusion from an editorial in the *London Times* which gives probably the most significant statement of the problem. "The real issue is whether the fact of marriage is or is not likely to affect the efficiency of the teacher, and this must be coupled with an issue perhaps as important, whether the fact of being faced with the alternative of enforced celibacy or of giving up a chosen career is likely to lower the standard of those women who enter training."

Children's Interest versus Social Needs is discussed in the same journal by Dean Thomas J. Mahan of Teachers' College, Greeley, Colo. A foreword tells us that this is a problem which is troubling educators. Dean Mahan begins with a statement of the controversy as "between two groups whose viewpoints are commonly assumed to be in opposition. On the one hand are those who believe that education should be a process of growth through engaging in activities, the determiner of which should be children's innate interests or inner urges." The view of the other camp is headed—"Education—an Apprenticeship" and of it he says, "they conceive of education as the most efficient process by which social needs may be provided for—an apprenticeship, as it were, in learning to do the things which they need to do as citizens of a democracy." He recognizes that a happy medium should be struck between these two views, since both have some validity, but his question is "should we lean more toward the one or the other concept or should it be a fifty-fifty proposition of accepting half the purposes of each of the two concepts?" The very statement of the problem indicates what we find to be the case that his own leaning is toward social needs. He believes that "there are only three justifications for learning a thing or engaging in an activity (whether it

is in school or in life): (1) because it satisfies a felt need; (2) because it serves as preparation for some relatively worth while future use; (3) because the joy of doing it is in itself sufficient award." If these categories are construed very broadly, it is possible that they do cover every valid activity. They seem, however, to ignore the demands of group living, such as taking turns and serving others. The author's ideal is a well-balanced education and of it he says "Plan the activities of the school so as to utilize only the innate interests of children and are you not omitting many of the things which make for a well balanced education. Child objectives are at best child objectives. Many of them may be the same as those of the adult, but the child has not the consciousness of purpose which will enable him to select those which are of most worth to him." And again, "Obviously the laws of learning should be constantly utilized; the drudgery of school work should be reduced to the lowest minimum by proper motivation of all school activities and the child should engage in experiences which are interesting and helpful. Instinctive interest must be utilized and appealed to, but they cannot be relied upon to determine what shall be learned. Our needs must come from society." One aspect of the whole question which seems to be overlooked in this article is the hope that a better and freer type of education may prepare children to create a better world and that that is of more importance than simply to train them to live in the one we know.

In this same journal Mrs. Susa P. Moore writes on The University of Michigan's New Educational Laboratory. This description of this new "educational laboratory" is very interesting. We will quote a few of its significant statements concerning early education. "The school provides for the education of children from two to twelve years of age, carrying them from junior nursery classes and kindergarten through the sixth grade. The pre-school classes are not detached, but they are made an integral and continuous part of a training scheme that elsewhere has been detached and more definitely departmentalized." And again. "Educationally the important factor here is the fact that the Michigan Elementary School has junior and senior nursery schools, with junior and senior kin-

dergartens and that the work of the pre-school divisions articulates fully with regular schedules in the higher grades. The soundness of the scheme is subjected to full experimental test throughout." And again, "The Elementary School at Michigan is a major experiment in education. It recognizes the educational rights of the preschool child and the obligation of teaching groups to understand that child. It formally admits the physiologist to the teaching group, and if special cases or difficult conditions demand it, it allows the physiologist to preempt the school man's field. It obligates the school of education to secure a better perspective on pre-school groups and plan more adequate administration." All workers in the field of early education will be heartened by this experiment and will look forward to reports of its successes.

The July-August issue of CHILD WELFARE is made up entirely of an account of the annual convention at Hot Springs of the National Parent-Teacher Association. The general theme of the convention was the Challenge of the Children's Charter. It is interesting to know that in spite of the business depression the registration showed an increase as did membership and magazine subscription—indicating a sincere interest in parent education. The resolutions adopted treated the following topics: Trained Leadership, Parent Education, Character Education, Humane Education, Thrift, Safety, Training for Leisure, Full-Time Use of the School Plant, Vocational Guidance, Handicapped Children, Maternity and Infancy Legislation, Health, Bureau of Home Economics, Child Labor, Juvenile Protection, Radio, Motion Pictures, Prohibition and Narcotics, International Cooperation, Unemployment Emergency, Adequate Support of Education, Selection of State and County Superintendents, County Library, Illiteracy, A Federal Department of Education, American Education Week, George Washington Bicentennial, A Parent-Teacher Association in Every Community. This shows the wide range of the interest of this group. One unusual feature of this convention was the time spent in actual study classes and another was the arrangement for broadcasting so that two of the important addresses and greetings from some of the leaders were sent to the total membership of over a million and a half people.

The so-called "popular magazines" are contributing valuable aid to child care these days. **THE LADIES' HOME JOURNAL** has two departments, conducted by specialists, which deal with problems of children. Dr. S. Josephine Baker has a page on *Some Problems of Childhood* which deal with physical problems. In the August issue she treats of bumps and bruises, bites and stings. Proper care of these minor ills of children may prevent more serious ones and will certainly make life pleasanter not only physically but also emotionally.

Dr. Karl Menninger conducts a department on mental hygiene. As the author of several books on this subject he presents an authoritative point of view. In the August issue he writes on *Why We Hate* and his explanation should be of value to teachers as well as to parents. We will quote briefly from it. "We are prone to suffer unhappiness as the result of hating the wrong things and the wrong persons, and the patterns for these unwise investments are formed during the years of childhood. One way hatred is stimulated in the child is by activities on the part of the parent toward the child which really contain hate in disguise. . . . So sensitive is the child to the emotional attitudes which parents—and also teachers and others who stand for parents—manifest toward him, that he not only quickly detects a concealed element of hatred within the parental love but even reacts adversely to the recognition that he is loved but lukewarmly. In other words, the child wants very, very much to be loved; if he detects hatred in his parents' attitudes he resents it; . . . He returns hate for hate, and he returns hate, also, for indifference." He goes on to show how this persists and says "grown-up children repeat over and over hate reactions or investments corresponding to the original pattern." This feeling is transferred

to others "to his employer, his neighbor, his grocer, his best friend, his wife, even his Government." Dr. Menninger does not refer to distinctly pathological cases but "to those everyday examples of bad mental hygiene which we see all about us, who usually haven't the slightest notion that anything is wrong with them, but who carry chips on their shoulders, pick quarrels, nourish grudges, get into scrapes, and as a rule regard themselves as pitifully misunderstood." This fresh evidence, from a different angle, of the importance of the early years of a child's life is stimulating to those who are working for improvement in methods.

The **DELINEATOR** for August prints an article on *What to Do About Jealous Children* by Cecile Pilpel which discusses the whole problem of jealousy in children. Jealousy starts often in a little child with the advent of a new baby and it seems tragic that an experience which can be of so much joy to a little child should, under the unwise management of adults, so often be made the beginning of the scourge which jealousy is. To sum up, "Where the child is secure in his self-confidence because he knows that he can count upon the love and understanding of his parents and because he has been helped to find happy and congenial outlets in work and play, there is little likelihood that the canker of jealousy or petty envy will thrive in him. It begins to look as if, in prescribing for the single ailment of jealousy we have outlined here a whole program of education. This is very true and inevitably so. For jealousy seems to depend essentially upon such deep-rooted feelings of insecurity or inferiority that we can fight it successfully only by building up all the individual's power. Only so can we help the jealous child to attain a happy relationship with himself and with the world."



Roger in the cornpatch whistling negro songs,
Pussy by the hearthside romping with the tongs;
Chestnuts in the ashes, bursting through the rind,
Red leaf and gold leaf rustling down the wind;
Mother "doin' peaches" all the afternoon—
Don't you think that Autumn's pleasanter than June?
"Marjorie's Almanac," by Thomas Bailey Aldrich.

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Editor, ELIZABETH MOORE MANWELL

Things Which Annoy Us.—It has always been recognized that we are often made more unhappy by steady doses of small irritations than by large ones. Many a serious quarrel or falling-out, among individuals, institutions, and even nations, has been caused by some minor incident almost too trivial to be recognized.

In a world whose machinery creaks as much as it does to-day with the results of human maladjustments, it may become a proper consideration of the schools to aid children to have some insight, not only into the graver ethical principles of conduct, but also into the smaller annoyances which arise in everyday life.

One of the few studies which have been made of what constitute annoyances has been recently published by Hulsey Cason.* The method used was to ask some 659 individuals, known to the writer, ranging from children as young as ten years, to college students, and to old people, to list all the incidents or objects which annoyed them. Some 21,000 annoyances, including duplicates, were then collected and classified. From this list were eliminated all those which were handed in by only one individual of any group, or by only two of the college students; this left 2,581 different annoyances.

These annoyances are classified—the main headings being:

- A—Human behavior.
- B—Non-Human things and activities,—Exclusive of clothes.
- C—Clothes and Manner of Dress.
- D—Alterable Physical Characteristics of People.
- E—Persisting Physical Characteristics of People.

From this list a selection was made on the

*Cason, Hulsey.—*A Psychological Study of Every-Day Aversions and Irritations.* Psychological Monographs, Vol. XL, No. 2. Whole No. 182. 1930. Pp. V + 218.

basis of frequency, age distribution, objectivity, universality, and permanence, and a final list of 507 annoyances is then printed, with as accurate an explanation as possible of why they seem to be annoying. The list, having also been submitted to two groups of subjects (1003 in all), for ratings, includes the average score of *degree of annoyance* as felt by these raters.

The first ten annoyances are:

1. A person lingering a long time after he or she has said good-by the first time and started to leave.
2. A person behaving in an affected manner.
3. A person behaving as if he (or she) wished people to believe that he (or she) were much younger than he (or she) really is.
4. A person with a gushing manner.
5. A person being excessively polite.
6. A person losing his (or her) temper.
7. A person habitually arguing.
8. To see a woman driving an automobile.
9. A person in an automobile I am driving telling me how to drive.
10. A person in the same automobile behaving in a very nervous manner.

Of these "A person habitually arguing" was rated as most annoying.

It is of interest to find that 57 per cent of all the annoyances were concerned with human behavior; 12 per cent with clothes and manner of dress. People seem mainly annoyed by the behavior of other people and in this respect clothes are more important than the alterable physical characteristics of people.

The author then analysed the scores given by his raters with respect to their age; sex; height; weight; physical health; whether single or married, if married, how long mar-

ried and the number of children; formal education; occupation; and residence.

The most interesting results of this analysis is the fact that the more educated raters reported fewer annoyances. The author in stating that the annoyance decreases as the education increases quotes from a statement of George Stratton: "It is conceivable and I believe it probable that a greater readiness to be irritated or fearful is a direct impediment to scholarly achievement . . . those who are the readier to be angry or afraid have probably a smaller store of habitually available energy to start with.

Although the most striking difference in the amount of annoyance felt was due to education, the writer found certain other factors entering in. When the raters were divided into four age-groups beginning at ten years and ending at ninety, it was found that people between the ages of forty and sixty were more annoying than those in the other age groups. The females were more annoying than the males, but the males were more variable. As to height, tall people seem less annoying than medium or short people. The author points out, however, that the large amount of overlapping between the groups compared is much more significant than are the relatively small differences between the average annoyance scores of some of the groups. "If the average tendencies are considered, women are more annoying than men; but it is a much more important fact that many men are more annoying than many women and our results show that many different kinds of people may be very annoying and also that many different kinds of people can show a low degree of annoyance."

The reader of this abstract will gain more from reading Cason's report than by this summary. Cason has been careful not to generalize or to throw together data which should be considered separately, therefore an actual reading of the 507 annoyances would be of more interest than a discussion of them. The educational significance of this study seems to be in the fact that there is a wide range of annoyances which disturb most people daily. These annoyances are largely caused by the behavior of other people. Many of us behave in ways which annoy others without realizing that we are so doing. It is possible that throughout the course of the child's

schooling some attention might be paid, not only upon his performing acts which give pleasure to others, but upon how the individual may develop an attitude resistant to the more common irritations of every-day life.

One out of seven of the marriages entered into in the year 1931 will end in divorce. How many of these might be prevented if each of the participants should learn at this time that among annoying incidents of Cason's study were found to be such things as: "A person in conversation with me, arousing my curiosity about something and then refusing to tell me about it,"—"To hear a grown person talking baby-talk,"—"A person looking over my shoulder at what I am writing!"

How May Jealousy in Young Children Be Prevented?—Probably the most unhappy attitude which a person develops toward others is that of jealousy, for it may lead to behavior causing unhappiness to one's self and others, and eats in, as it were, to the center of a person's tranquillity and poise. It forms the basis of many different kinds of maladjustment, and frequently the tragedy of jealousy is that it is caused purely by the imagination of the jealous person. Therefore, any study in this field which gives us more information on how to prevent such maladjustment is welcome.

Miss Sewall* has made an investigation of 70 pre-school children who were attending nursery school or who were registered in a pre-school clinic of The Institute for Juvenile Research, all of the children selected having one younger brother or sister. 24 of the children were nursery school children and 46 clinic children. There were forty boys and thirty girls. Case records were available for all seventy children and in addition the writer or psychiatric social worker visited the homes to obtain the necessary information. A child was considered to be jealous who manifested any of the following behavior:

1. Bodily attacks on the younger sibling.
2. Ignoring the presence of a sibling.
3. Denying having a younger sibling.
4. No outward manifestation toward a younger sibling, but definite personality changes at the time of its birth.

39 of the younger children were found to be

*Sewall, Mabel.—*Some Causes of Jealousy in Young Children*. Smith College Studies in Social Work. Vol. 1. 1930. Pp. 6-22.

jealous, the attitude being expressed either by biting, fighting with or attacking the younger child, or by such symptoms as more temper tantrums, more negativism, more destructiveness, by a change to a recessive type of behavior, such as day-dreaming, excessive shyness, pronounced timidity, or by the onset of infantile habits of enuresis, sleeping difficulties, and the like.

The children studied ranged in age from twelve months to about seven years; the economic level ranging from families whose income was less than a thousand dollars a year to rather well-to-do families; and the social setting representing three strata of Chicago society—laborers, middle-class artisans, and professional and business people.

The first question asked by the author after she found how many of the seventy children were,—“Did the jealous child know that a baby was expected?”—She found that half of the mothers had prepared their children for the baby’s arrival. Of the 33 who had been told that a baby was expected 19 showed jealousy and 14 did not. Of the 37 who were not told that a baby was expected 20 showed jealousy and 14 did not—“Therefore, so far as these figures go, it seems that the mere fact that a child is told a baby is to be born is not a determining factor in the attitude which he will have toward his sibling. Perhaps the method of preparation is important.”

Among other factors which might cause jealousy Sewall studied the home background. She found that families of low income, who speak only foreign languages, with whom relatives live, show a higher proportion of jealousy than do their opposites, although the absence of any or all of these traits does not preclude jealousy. It also appears from

the figures presented that the over-solicitous mothers showed a higher per cent of jealous children. The author considers that when there is a combination of young mothers, only children, and over-solicitous attitude, jealousy may result.

Figures point out clearly that inconsistency of discipline seems to be closely associated with jealousy, since about four-fifths of the homes maintaining inconsistent discipline contain jealous children.

Moreover, the homes were classified into well-adjusted and poorly-adjusted, the latter showing such marital difficulties as continual quarreling, fault-finding, indifference or jealousy between parents, or emotional tensions, undue dependence between parents and child, or definite social or economic difficulties. Of the 39 jealous children, 38 came from poorly-adjusted homes and one from a well-adjusted home.

This study has bearing upon the teacher’s attitude toward her pupils. Whenever she knows that there is to be or has been a new child in the family of a pupil, she may well be on the alert to help that pupil to adjust to the new experience, to ease him if he seems particularly tense, to reassure him if he seems insecure, and, most important, to advise his parents as to how they may help him and anticipate and develop a feeling of pleasure and responsibility toward the baby. It is the present writer’s experience that when one is confronted with behavior difficulties in a child who has previously not shown such difficulty, it is wise to look into the home situation to see whether the arrival of another child may not be the cause. Frequently understanding, sympathy, and information is needed rather than discipline.

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